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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27, 1900.

The Week.

The Joint Note to China, which has at last been signed, has most unfortunate specifications. They are what the State Department had led us to expect the American Minister could not possibly put his name to. Indeed, it is explained now that Mr. Conger muddled a cablegram in the translation, and insisted with zeal upon terms which he was, in fact, ordered to oppose. Then, in a fit of desperation, the Department decided to back him up in what he had blunderingly done. This seems an odd kind of diplomacy—to feel bound by the mistakes of your subordinates. However that may be, we see in the Joint Note none of the things for which the United States was supposed to be standing out. We have signed an ultimatum couched in as extreme language as has ever been proposed, unless exception should be made of the demand for "the severest punishment" of the guilty officials, in place of the original call for their heads outright. But the interdiction of arms and forts, the insistence upon "military occupation of certain points, to be determined by an understanding among the Powers," the demand for new commercial treaties "considered useful by the foreign Powers," and the stark announcement of an intention to stay in Pekin and the adjoining provinces until the Chinese Government has done everything "to the satisfaction of the Powers" —all this is a sheer disregard and practical extinction of Chinese sovereignty. We are thankful that at least the hypocrisy was not indulged in of saying anything more about "the integrity of the Chinese Empire." Not a word about that or about the open door appears in the Note. And if, in addition to yielding these American contentions, we are going to do our part in that military occupation to which we have assented, the troops which we withdrew will have to be sent back at once. Where they are to come from, Heaven knows; Root and Corbin certainly do not.

Gen. MacArthur continues to be the *enfant terrible* of the Philippine question. With appalling frankness he blurts out truths which the Administration at Washington and the Commission in Manila compass sea and land to conceal. To Judge Taft, in particular, that prophet of smooth things, it must be like a blow in the face to have the military Governor-General bluntly admit, in an official proclamation, that Manila itself is the "rendezvous of the emissaries of insurrection." Where does this leave the cocksure preëlection predictions of Roosevelt, Root, Schurman, and the rest? Looking very like exploded humbugs. Instead of that general crawling of the Filipinos to the feet of the invincible McKinley which we were to see immediately following Republican success at the polls, we now discover that the islands are more disaffected than ever, that they are honeycombed with insurrection, and that the revolt has become so pervasive as to compel Gen. MacArthur to begin operations against even non-combatants.

Coming to the details of this latest Philippine proclamation, we find it threatening to treat the insurgents as "fugitive criminals"—that is, bandits to be shot on sight or hung without trial if captured; to try as "traitors" even "well-disposed persons" in places "where secret committees are permitted to exist on behalf of the insurgents"; to accept no "pleas of intimidation" from non-combatants who have been forced to contribute to the insurgent cause; and, finally, to deny the "privileges of prisoners of war" to all rebels in arms who are not "part of an organized force." It will be left, of course, to the American officers to decide what is an "organized force," and it is clear that what is contemplated is a reversion to the fine old Spanish practice of standing prisoners up against a wall and shooting them as soon as taken. So we see that the good McKinley's breathings of grace, mercy, and peace to the Filipinos work out into this policy of "Thorough," which may lead to our outdoing of Cromwell in Ireland or Alva in the Low Countries.

Mr. Phelps Whitmarsh, the correspondent of the *Outlook* at Manila, gives Gen. Otis a belated raking for saying that "the war in the Philippines is already over; the insurrection ended some months ago; there will be no more real fighting; there is no rebel army, nothing but guerrilla bands, ladrones, armed robbers, who prey on their countrymen," etc. That has a far-away sound, but Mr. Whitmarsh's comment is equally applicable to present conditions. What is meant by ladrones and armed robbers? he asks. Evidently we mean those who go through the country seizing property indiscriminately, and who are governed by no rules of civilized warfare. Now what do we see? A few days before the letter was written, one of these bands captured an American officer and ten enlisted men. Two of the latter were wounded. Instead of killing them or leaving them on the ground to die, the "ladrones" conveyed them to the nearest American garrison and delivered them up in order that they might receive proper medical attention. Another Filipino officer, Gen. Tecson, has recently released several American prisoners on parole. That there are some ladrones, however, is proved by the fact that the Filipino General, Cailes, captured seven of them, whom our troops had been vainly pursuing, and turned them over to the American commander for punishment. "Do these things," asks Mr. Whitmarsh, "look like the work of ladrones, which means thieves or bandits?"

As the obstinate love of independence threatens to bring to naught the most benevolent intentions of two powerful nations, Americans should be interested to know that their example in the Philippines is yielding great comfort to the Englishmen who have to defend their own cruelties in South Africa. Mr. Balfour has cited the American military regulations, and the exploits of our troops in Luzon, as a convenient precedent for farm-burning and the deportation of women and children in the Transvaal. Cruel civilizers, it seems, love company. Mr. Timothy Healy, on the other hand, speaking as one of those Irish members of Parliament who, in times past, have had the closest relations with America, and the warmest admiration for her, said in the Commons that Irish sentiment was opposed to the Boer war not simply because Irishmen were anti-English; they hated cruelty and oppression everywhere:

> "He believed the conduct of the Americans in the Philippines was more disgraceful, more abominable, and less excusable than the conduct of the British in the Transvaal. Unlike the Americans in the Philippines, England had some rag of justification for her action. He did not believe the conduct of English generals in the Transvaal had been as black and disgraceful as the conduct of the American generals in the Philippines. He had read of Catholic churches being desecrated, tabernacles desecrated, and the chalices of the natives pawned in the pawnshops of San Francisco. There were no such stories as those from the Transvaal, yet it was an unhappy omen, when the right honorable gentleman wanted to justify his policy, that it was to America in the miserable squabble with the Philippines he had to go."

Thus has Expansion first opened the eyes of the Old World to the true grandeur of the United States!

Argument closed on Thursday in two cases pending before the Supreme Court which involve the Constitutional aspects of the Expansion policy, but other cases involving the same issue are to come up in January, so that a decision is not to be expected for a number of weeks. There is naturally much speculation as to the probable attitude of the judges, based

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in part upon questions put by some during the argument, in part upon their political affiliations, and in part upon the probable sympathy of six of the nine with the two ex-Presidents who appointed them and who agree in opposing the contention of the Administration. All this is idle. The course of the court in declaring the Civil Rights Act unconstitutional and in sustaining State rights in the Virginia debt case, years ago, when nearly all the judges were Republicans, is warrant for the belief that politics will cut very little figure in the decision. Moreover, when the ruling of the court comes, the struggle will not be ended. If that tribunal should hold that the United States may do wrong, there will still be people who will insist that it shall not do wrong. The situation has been happily stated by the New Bedford (Mass.) *Standard*, when it says: "At the bottom we have the old struggle between 'man as a consumer' and 'man as a creation of God endowed with inalienable rights,' and no Supreme Court can ever decide that issue. That goes to the court of humanity, where Benjamin Harrison has just ably presented his view of the case."

The changes in the Army Reorganization Bill made by the Senate Military Affairs Committee show a gratifying disinclination on the part of that body to be stampeded into accepting the House hodge-podge by any warnings of the War Department as to what will happen if the bill is not passed within a day or two. As matters stand now, the bill will go over the holidays, and will probably not become a law until well into the month of January. The delay means greater difficulties for the War Department in the matter of raising, drilling, and transporting the new regiments, a more complete disorganization of the regular service as a result of the process of reorganization, and a probable retention of some of the present volunteers beyond the time of their enlistment, as was done in 1899 in the case of the original volunteers in the Philippines. But the army will profit greatly if the Senate amendments are adhered to, and from the point of view of the army's future they are well worth fighting for. The striking out of the provision for an opéra-bouffe corps of high-titled veterinarians, subject only to the orders of the Secretary of War, the reinsertion of Secretary Root's plan for staff and line transfers, a cutting-down of the wholesale increase in the staff departments proposed by the House, and the excellent provision to bar out volunteers and spoilsmen by prohibiting any more permanent appointments to the staff corps—all these changes are in the interest of efficiency, economy, and reform, as well as of advantage to the abused regular officer. The Senate should insist upon their retention.

The action of the Senate Military Committee in restoring to the Army Reorganization Bill the provision for a canteen in which beer, but not light wines, may be sold to soldiers, was not unexpected, in view of the strenuous efforts of the War Department officials in behalf of the institution, and of the recent and striking testimony in its favor of so distinguished a prelate as Archbishop Ireland and of other prominent people. If there are dissenting notes, such as the conscientious opposition of Col. A. S. Kimball, depot-quartermaster in this city, and of other officers, it must be said that an overwhelming majority of the army have asked for the retention of the canteen. This has had its effect, and although the opposition will seek to exert the same powerful influence which compelled the House to defeat the canteen provision by a one-sided vote, it looks now as if the Senate amendment had come to stay. According to such well-known supporters of it as Gen. Corbin, Gen. Theodore Schwan (from whom we elsewhere print a communication on this subject), Gen. J. M. Wilson, and a host of others, the canteen has brought with it greater contentedness on the part of the enlisted man, together with less drunkenness, less desertion, less sickness, and less temptation to immorality. It must be pointed out, however, that a true comparison with the decade previous to 1889 is impossible. Between that year and 1898 the army was concentrated in larger posts near the great cities, and there was an immense improvement in morale and discipline, as the younger officers gradually took the places of much deadwood forced upon the service by the reorganizations of 1866 and 1870; and this improvement had no connection with the canteen. Practice marches and more frequent drills were instituted. The construction and garrisoning of Eastern posts brought the army more and more into contact with the public in the large cities, to which it had been hitherto unknown. The resultant benefit to officers and men from these changes was well shown at Santiago on July 1 and 2, 1898. The time-worn adage as to Satan, mischief, and idle hands, has a special significance for "single men in barracks," and it is significant that there is little anxiety about wholesale drunkenness in the German army, where men work, day after day, from four A. M. until six P. M., or until ready to drop from a wholesome fatigue.

If the recommendations of the Naval Board of Construction are adopted, Cramp & Sons will receive contracts for the construction of one more battle-ship and of two large cruisers at a cost of $10,370,000. We sincerely hope that Secretary Long will not be so hard-hearted as to refuse this insignificant tit-bit to this struggling firm, which has labored against such overwhelming odds to hold its workmen together. So far it has been able to employ only 7,500 men, and its yards at present are constructing only two battle-ships, one cruiser, and five large steamships of some 44,000 tons, while its list of vessels constructed for the new American navy comprises only some fifteen or twenty names, from dynamite cruiser to battle-ship. It may even be that the award of this contract might prevent the Cramps from building any more war-vessels for Russia, Turkey, and Japan. We have been waiting in vain for some truly American Senator or Congressman to denounce this un-American and sordid policy of supplying possible enemies with Philadelphia-built war-ships to use against our *Alabamas* and *Oregons*, but it may well be the best policy to keep the Cramps so busy with our own ships that they will be compelled to decline to receive Russian gold. Here is another striking argument for the Ship-Subsidy Bill which we have not yet seen mentioned. At least, this new contract may help to tide the Cramps over their present hard times until the Ship-Subsidy Bill comes to their rescue.

The recent joint convention of delegates from Oklahoma and the Indian Territory brought out much enthusiasm for common Statehood. What appeared most clearly was this, that conditions in the Indian Territory are rapidly becoming intolerable, and that the situation cries urgently for relief. The temporary Chairman of the convention described most strikingly the condition of a population exceeding 400,000, in an interregnum as wards of the nation, subject to the jurisdiction of Indian agents and inspectors. He said that there were more than fifty thousand children of school age, and no schools; cities, towns, and villages, and little or no law for the protection of the population thereof; mills, factories, and mines, and no roads to reach them; rivers to cross, and no bridges; deaf, dumb, blind, and insane, and no asylums. Their cities, he continued, might be ravaged with fire, and there was no law that allowed them to protect themselves. Contagion might rage and sweep the people of their towns from the face of the earth, and the laws were inadequate to offer any protection. The insane, he added, were chained in their lowly cabins like wild beasts in cages; the boys and girls were being educated in crime, and discharged inmates from the penitentiaries of the bordering States found an asylum in the Indian Territory. There

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may well be some little rhetorical exaggeration in this bill of wrongs, but does it not suggest at least that spreading the benefits of our civilization may be practised at home?

Nearly all decent people in New York were long ago convinced that Col. Asa Bird Gardiner was an unfit man to hold the office of District Attorney, or any other office in city, State, or nation. In view, however, of the precedent set by Gov. Roosevelt himself only three months ago, in the case of the charges preferred by the City Club, the public naturally inferred that the more recent charge against Gardiner, that he had given countenance to Devery's riot-provoking order just before the last election, would be likewise dismissed, with perhaps a reprimand. It was with great astonishment, therefore, that the community learned on Sunday that all but one of the fresh charges had failed, and that the Governor had removed Gardiner from office for a newspaper interview which he (Gardiner) denied that he had ever given. The interview purported to sustain Devery and to censure the grand jury for indicting him. It was very much like Gardiner to give such interviews, yet it is also the habit of a certain class of newspaper reporters to exaggerate and even manufacture such interviews, and to publish matter which the person interviewed intended as a private communication. That the Governor should have removed an elective officer on such grounds is really astounding. The wonder grows when we reflect that the Governor chooses such an act as this to signalize his own retirement from office. His term comes to an end next Monday.

William J. Youngs, private secretary to Gov. Roosevelt, has just been exposed as a party to a successful scheme to refuse the contract for building a State armory to the lowest bidder and give it to a higher bidder for purely political reasons. When the local Republican leaders found that a Democrat had offered to build the Medina armory on such terms that he ought to get the job, and appealed to the State boss to prevent this because "we need that armory to handle here in the politics of this county," Platt wrote to Youngs that he regarded the result sought "as of considerable political consequence"; that he thought Youngs, "being on the ground, and presumably having relations with the officials concerned, can find a way to accomplish it"; and that he "would like to have you do what you can in the interest of these gentlemen" —two Republicans whose bid was several hundred dollars higher than the Democrat's. Youngs acted immediately in accordance with this request. He saw one member of the Armory Board which would decide the matter, and secured his promise to do all that he could; agreed to see a second member the next morning; and wrote to Platt that the third was a Democrat, and that "I do not know whether you can reach him through Kreidenheimer or not." It needs no argument to show that such conduct on the part of the Governor's secretary is highly improper, and that there is only one way in which to treat it.

The death of ex-Gov. Roger Wolcott is a loss not only to Massachusetts, but to the country. He was an admirable example of the man who uses his education, standing, and wealth in the service of the public, displaying that robust sense of obligation to the community which characterized his ancestry, and the survival of which is the most hopeful augury for the future. He came naturally to the Governorship after repeated elevations from lower offices, and he was an Executive in whom the Bay State felt a justifiable pride. He possessed a person of such dignity and attractiveness as made him look the Governor, while he combined with the charms of courtesy such conscience and such strength of character as made him always ready to stand forth in defence of principle. The iron hand of the veto power was within the velvet glove, and the Legislature repeatedly felt its force, to the great service of the State. Mr. Wolcott was public-spirited and generous in every relation, and his death puts an end to a long list of gifts to charitable, educational, and progressive movements of various sorts. It is very hard to have such a man removed in his prime, when he should long have served as a model for our educated youth.

The Federation of Labor in its annual convention has declared unanimously against any form of compulsory arbitration, and in so doing has apparently accepted President Gompers s view of the matter. It is, he believes, another invention of well-intentioned but uninformed persons, of faddists, and of schemers to corrupt the principle of arbitration into a policy of coercion by playing upon the credulity of labor—not properly a scheme of arbitration at all, but one for invoking the power of the State to deprive wage-earners of their inalienable right to quit work. This declaration of policy on the part of organized labor is significant in view of the efforts which have been recently made for the creation of a National Board of Arbitration in certain industries. It is an evidence of the very general suspicion entertained by labor, in this country, of any sort of State interference or regulation. Neither employers nor employees appear to favor any plan of compulsory arbitration.

The old question as to the nature of a man's craft or trade came up again in the convention, and served as a subject for bitter speech-making and wrangling. The Knights of Labor, years ago, attempted to solve the problem by refusing to recognize any trade distinctions whatever—a laborer was a laborer, not a baker nor a candle-stick maker, and for a time this theory prevailed. But the trade spirit was too strong, and separate organizations still flourished. The question before the Federation involved the right of these single unions to determine who is eligible for membership. The brewery workers, for instance, are keen upon forcing brewery engineers and firemen to join their organization, but these engineers and firemen have organizations of their own respective crafts. Again, as machinists, those who attend the linotype machines should join the International Association of Machinists, but as printers they should of course join the International Typographical Union—the dispute as to which they should in fact join has lasted for four years, during which time all suggestions that the matter be arbitrated have been rejected. The recent convention, nevertheless, resolved that such questions should be submitted to the Executive Council of the American Federation for adjustment, and so the matter stands. Whether or not the unions involved in the dispute will act upon the suggestion remains to be seen.

No wonder that the Under-Secretary for War, Mr. Brodrick, sang in a minor key when laying the supplementary estimates before Parliament. He had to confess that the South African war, of which the cost was reckoned at the beginning as only $50,000,000, had already swallowed $500,000,000; and whereas the jaunty holiday march on Pretoria was to have been accomplished by 20,000 troops, in addition to the South African garrisons, no less than 270,000 men have had to take the field. Among these the losses have been appalling. Under the return, "killed or died of wounds," we have 11,000 men. As "wounded" are reported 13,000, while 12,000 more are "in hospitals in South Africa," presumably ill of typhoid and other diseases. Then there are 36,000 men who are grouped under the head, "returned to England, sick, wounded, or died on passage." In short, some 70,000 men killed, wounded, or disabled, in order to give 24,000 Outlanders a five-years' franchise, instead of a seven-years'! "Have we not seen the war fever before?" writes Mr. Goldwin Smith. "Did we not see it at its height at the time of the Crimean war, which is now universally condemned and deplored?" Even swifter must come the condemnation of the South African war, with its sacrifices doubly fearful because needless.

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THE TREATY MUDDLE.

Granting the sincerity of the Senate in its action upon the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, we can only say that it has shown an extraordinary mastery of the art of how not to do it. Professing an ardent desire for the immediate construction of an Isthmian canal, the Senate has deliberately chosen to put the whole matter over for at least a year more. It was burning with impatience to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, yet has gone ingeniously to work to make it more binding than ever. With loud pretence of friendly feeling for the Central-American republics, it has taken a step which can but excite their suspicions and fears in acute form.

What the British Government will do with the mangled treaty we do not profess to know. It needs no prophetic gift, however, to say that Lord Salisbury will take his time about it. If we have occupied eleven months in muddling the treaty, the English Foreign Office is entitled to at least three in passing upon our handiwork. That will mean the impossibility of any canal legislation during the present session of Congress. We are aware that Senator Morgan's latest report on the Hepburn bill advocates instant action without waiting to know, or caring, whether our solemn and acknowledged treaty obligations stand in the way. But it is incredible that the Senate will follow him in such headlong folly. If it should, the President would be bound to veto the Hepburn Canal Bill. He said last spring that he would, and his duty is unchanged by anything that has happened since. Hence, we say, the Senate has put it out of the range of probability that there will be any canal legislation at all during the session. It is not an enemy that hath done this, but the friendly Senate—the Senate which vows on every occasion that not a moment must be lost in beginning the work of connecting the oceans.

The indecency of trying to "supersede" the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in the way attempted by the Senate might well be remarked upon; but we prefer to dwell upon its fatuousness. We were in the position of one party to a contract, agreeing to modify it, in certain particulars, with the consent of the other. Then we coolly slip into the modification a notice that the whole contract is abrogated. That is surely not decent; nor is it even clever. We put ourselves absolutely in Lord Salisbury's power. He can keep us on tenterhooks, and with our hands tied, for a year, if he likes. He can then say, "I observe that you desire to void a contract existing between us. What consideration have you to offer? Will you give Canada a port on the Lynn Canal? What will you give? Of course, you mean to give something." Thus we should be thrust back to the beginning again, and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty left in full force meanwhile. This is what comes of being too sly. The way to abrogate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is to negotiate directly to that effect, and the attitude of the British Government on this subject has always been that of the Earl of Clarendon in 1858, who then said that "her Majesty's Government would not decline the consideration of a proposal for the abrogation of the treaty by *mutual consent*." Snap judgment on one side is not mutual consent.

In striking for the abrogation of the whole treaty, including even those parts which bind the United States to make no acquisition of territory in Central America, the Senate has done its best to alarm the republics to the south of us. They can see in this action but a covert threat to their territorial integrity. Do not say that only a malicious Mugwump will suggest this. It was Mr. Blaine himself who, in November, 1881, wrote to Minister Lowell about this provision of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty:

> "If the United States should seek its annulment, it might give rise to erroneous and mischievous apprehensions among a people with whom this Government desires to be on the most friendly terms. The United States has taken special occasion to assure the Spanish-American republics to the south of us that we do not intend and do not desire to cross their borders or in any way disturb their territorial integrity, and we *shall not willingly incur the risk of a misunderstanding*, by annulling the clauses in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty which forbid such a step with respect to Central America."

Surely the oracles are dumb when a Republican Senate gives no heed to that voice!

We have been writing on the assumption that the Senate really meant its action to promote, not to retard, an interoceanic canal, and to solve the questions connected with it, instead of plunging them into hopeless confusion. But it is hard so to exalt its sincerity at the expense of its understanding. If they are truly the innocent Senators they pose as being, one could only compliment them, as Chesterfield once complimented the House of Lords, by assuring them that they might well thank God that it was not necessary for them to live by their brains. There may be a simple-minded remnant in the Senate which thinks that it has followed a wise and patriotic course; but the treaty muddle seems to us to be too studiously and artfully contrived not to have been the work of astute intelligence working craftily for that end.

In fairness, one word must be said about the President's part in the sorry business. If he had stood up like a man and a conscientious Executive for the treaty as it was originally framed, there is no doubt that it could have been ratified in that form. If he had shown one-tenth the firmness and patriotic conviction which Washington displayed when the Jay treaty was so vehemently assailed, he could have triumphed quite as easily as did the first President. But Washington took the duties of his office seriously. When he, as directed by the Constitution, "recommended" a measure to Congress, he did not indifferently throw it to the wolves, not caring in what shape it might emerge from their jaws, but exerted himself, and went behind the Senate and appealed directly to the people, in order to save a treaty of the highest public importance. Mr. McKinley prefers his ease. Under the form of carefully observing the Constitutional "division of powers," he waives the exercise of a part of the powers of the President, and allows the Senate to usurp or trample upon the rest. If we thus have a *roi fainéant*, we need not be surprised at having a do-nothing Congress. Muddled good-nature in the White House leads straight to such a calculated and malicious muddle as the Senate has now made of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty.

THE OLEOMARGARINE BILL.

Very little attention has been given by the press to the bill (H. R. 3717) which proposes to put a prohibitive tax on oleomargarine. This is an article of food manufactured from the fat of certain animals and the oil of certain vegetables. No sooner was the manufacture of this article started (some fifteen years ago) than the butter-makers became alarmed and went to the State legislatures demanding laws to overcome the competition of the rising industry. A great number of devices were resorted to for this purpose, under the police powers of the States. At first it was thought to be sufficient if the new article were marked and labelled with its own name, so that no package could be sold without giving notice to the buyer that it was not butter. Some of the labels required by State laws were ingeniously contrived to create prejudice in the minds of purchasers. Thus, one of the States prescribed the phrase "adulterated butter," and required this name to be inscribed on the package, and also to be placed on every dish containing it on a hotel table. A law of California required the words "substitute for butter" to be put on the packages, together with a list of the ingredients of which it was composed, and also a verbal notice to the buyer at time of sale. Connecticut requires, in addition to other notices of the character of the article, a sign to be displayed over the shop to let the public know that imitation butter is sold there. In Massachusetts hotel-keepers must notify guests if they use oleomargarine. Florida prohibits the sale of "any spurious preparation

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purporting to be butter." Most of these laws prohibited the use of coloring matter in oleomargarine, but one or two States required that the article should be colored pink. In short, all possible devices were employed to prevent the sale of oleomargarine, or butterine, or any article resembling butter, which was not made by churning milk.

In the course of time the public found out that oleomargarine was "good to eat," that it was a wholesome, palatable, and useful article of food. The consumers ceased to be deterred from using it by the labels, signs, and spoken words devised to alarm them. Many who had had experience of bad butter came to prefer oleomargarine because of its uniformly good quality. Moreover, the laws governing interstate commerce interposed many difficulties in the way of suppressing the traffic. So the butter-makers went to Congress and demanded a tax on oleomargarine, together with rigid inspection laws under officers of the internal revenue, on the pretence that the article was made of all sorts of deleterious stuff, including dead cats and dogs. Congress acceded to both these demands by putting a tax of two cents per pound on all articles made in imitation or semblance of butter, and established a system of inspection, while special taxes were levied on the manufacturers and dealers, both wholesale and retail. The total tax on oleomargarine under Federal law in the year 1899 was within a small fraction of $2,000,000.

Notwithstanding all these persecuting laws, both State and national, oleomargarine continued to grow in popularity. The quality, too, improved, and to this end the Federal inspection law was of some service, since it not only insured the purity of the article manufactured, but gave a sort of public certificate of its goodness. It has passed through all stages of trial, and now commands a market on its own merits. Professor Chandler of Columbia University says of it:

"I have studied the question of its use as food in comparison with the ordinary butter made from cream, and have satisfied myself that it is quite as valuable as butter from the cow. The product is palatable and wholesome, and I regard it as a most valuable article of food."

Similar opinions have been expressed by professors of chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, the Stevens Institute of Technology, Yale University, Cornell University, and other first-class authorities. Professor Atwater of the Agricultural Experiment Station at Washington says: "It contains the same ingredients as natural butter from cow's milk; it is perfectly wholesome and healthy, and has a high nutritious value."

All attempts to break down the character of oleomargarine and to prevent its sale having failed, the butter-makers have gone to Congress and demanded a tax of ten cents per pound on oleomargarine unless the makers will put it on the market without any coloring matter. Both butter and oleomargarine are colored yellow by the addition of anatto or some other substance which neither adds to nor detracts from the value of the articles as food, but merely pleases the eye of the buyer. Custom, habit, prejudice require that butter shall be golden in color, and this color is produced artificially both by the butter-maker and by the manufacturer of oleomargarine. All the agricultural newspapers and the dairy journals contain advertisements of such coloring compounds. It is assumed by the supporters of the bill now pending in Congress that if oleomargarine makers and vendors can be prevented from using coloring matter, they cannot sell their product, and thus their competition will be destroyed. This may be true, but the logic of this measure is that the strong arm of the Government is used to break down a legitimate and useful industry for the benefit of another, and at the same time to deprive the public of an article of food which has the advantage of being cheap as well as nutritious. The blow will fall with greatest severity on the laboring classes in cities, who will be deprived of an article of diet to which they are accustomed, and compelled to pay higher prices for a similar one. This is, at all events, the intention of its promoters.

It is needless to say that such a law is spoliation, and that the principle can be extended to the suppression of any other industry whenever a sufficient number of votes can be obtained. Cotton can suppress wool, wool can suppress silk, silver can suppress nickel, nickel can suppress aluminum, and so on through the whole list. We presume, however, that the bill will pass because the butter-makers have the votes. The day when bills were passed or defeated according to their merits has gone by. It may come again, but it is not the present day.

MR CLYDE ON SHIP SUBSIDIES.

Mr. Thomas Clyde, in a letter to the *Evening Post*, asks the opponents of the present Ship-Subsidy Bill to draft and present a better measure for the revival of our merchant marine before condemning the one now before Congress. "Revival of our merchant marine" belongs to a class of phrases condemned by Aristotle and all other writers on logic as *petitio principii*, or begging the question. It assumes a number of disputable points as being already proved. The phrase was introduced into our political jargon two or three years ago, when a tremendous effort was made to manufacture public sentiment in favor of subsidies. It assumes (1) that we now have no merchant marine; (2) that we ought to have one; (3) that the only way to get it is by Government subsidies; (4) that the men who are now lobbying for the Subsidy Bill at Washington are working for the revival aforesaid rather than for their own pockets.

All these propositions are disputable except the second. We agree that a merchant marine is desirable on condition that it supports itself and is not a burden on the taxpayers. We consider it a nuisance and a national curse if it depends on the public treasury; and this for a variety of reasons. It is state socialism on a large scale. It introduces fundamentally wrong ideas into the national life. It establishes a dangerous precedent. It prompts other industries, cliques, and sections to demand similar benefactions from the public funds. It makes the amount of the subsidy a matter of hugger-mugger between the beneficiaries and Congressmen, thus tending to corruption—witness the old Pacific Mail subsidy and its story of sin and shame. While we should be glad to see a merchant marine established if we had none, we should consider it a present affliction and a future danger if it were established in the way proposed.

Now as to the first example of *petitio principii*, implying that we have no merchant marine. If we have one now, it is deception to talk about "reviving" it. We only revive that which is dead. To show that we have a merchant marine now it is only necessary to point to the Clyde Line, which has been in existence for twenty or thirty years. Surely that line needs no physician. We have *some* merchant marine now, and the question is not of reviving, but of getting more. And this question brings another in its train, "What is the proper way to get more?" Before entering upon that inquiry, however, we shall call attention to the progress we are now making without the help of any subsidies. The report of the Commissioner of Navigation for the year 1899 furnishes unimpeachable testimony on this point in its opening paragraphs, viz.:

"During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1899, American shipping industries shared in the general prosperity of the country, and the new fiscal year has opened with the promise of continued activity in our shipyards. . . . Our documented tonnage on June 30, 1899, was the largest since 1865. . . . Our tonnage of steam vessels registered for foreign trade is the largest in our history. . . . Our construction of steel steam vessels was greater than in 1891, or than in any year of our history."

This roseate view of our shipping interests continued throughout the year, and even grew brighter as the months rolled on. In his report for 1900, just published, the Commissioner says:

"The fiscal year ended June 30, 1900, has

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been not only the most prosperous known to American shipping interests during recent years, but, measured by absolute, not relative, statistical standards, it has been the most notable year in the history of American shipping. The returns for the first quarter of the current fiscal year and reports on vessels under construction or contract give promise that the fiscal year ending June 30, 1901, will surpass even the remarkable record of the fiscal year just closed."

Such a picture of growth and prosperity would not, if left without explanation, be a very good argument for ship subsidies. The present Commissioner of Navigation, who has changed his views on the subsidy question since the McKinley Administration came in, accordingly hastens to show the gloomy side of it. "There is a reverse to these gratifying statements," he says. "During the last fiscal year American vessels carried the smallest *percentage* of our exports and imports in our history." This means that, although we are in a period of great prosperity as regards shipping and ship-building, the most notable year in our history, yet we need $9,000,000 a year for twenty years from the public Treasury for what? Not to enable our ship-owners or our ship-builders to do a good business, but to enable them to run a race with other countries! In the view of Commissioner Chamberlain, apparently, the ship-building business is so extremely meritorious that it ought to be promoted by public appropriations even when it is in affluent circumstances, because some other nation (Norway, for example) is doing more of it than we are.

The answer would seem to be that if little Norway is doing more shipping business than the great American republic, the reason probably is that Norway can find more profitable employment for her capital and labor in ships than in other things, while the reverse is true with us. It should be borne in mind, also, that large amounts of American capital are invested in foreign-built ships, the earnings of which go into American pockets, although in the statistics that Commissioner Chamberlain hurls at us they figure on the other side. The great and growing Atlantic Transport Company is one of this kind. It figures against us in Mr. Chamberlain's tables, but its net earnings mostly go to Baltimore. If it is so desirable that its tonnage statistics should be on our side, that change can be accomplished in a twinkling by passing a law admitting its ships to American registry. Such a law would cost nothing. It would not alter any existing facts, but it would marvellously change the looks of things. If the revival of our merchant marine is something to be prayed for, this is the cheapest and surest way to begin.

ENGLISH IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

The better organization of that part of our higher education which has to do with the study of our language and literature, is a task whose successful accomplishment is a matter of such immediate and practical importance that it cannot be long put off. There seems to be a growing conviction that this work should be the next step toward perfecting our educational system. In most other branches of learning which have a practical bearing on every-day life, education has availed itself of the results of modern science; yet here is one whose practical importance is unquestioned, but whose organization has stubbornly resisted all attempts to put it on a scientific basis. In the last twenty years the scientific study of English has furnished us with a standpoint which is as different from that of a few generations ago as is our modern notion of biology different from that of the seventeenth century; and scientific research has also contributed a great mass of organized knowledge that is now available for purposes of practical teaching. It is high time that these things were getting into our elementary education even. But various obstacles stand in the way, chief among which is the notion that the scientific study of English, being the study of a "modern language," must first dispossess classical study in order to win its place in educational curricula. President Hadley voiced this the other day in the following expression:

"The marvellous grammatical system of Latin and Greek, coming to us in a foreign language, arrests our attention and makes teachers and scholars feel that it is something to be seriously studied. When we have a body of instructors who are ready to teach English with equal seriousness, and are able to suppress that vastly greater body who handle it mechanically or carelessly, then—and not till then—shall we be able to talk of superseding the classics in our educational system."

These sentences form the conclusion to a very one-sided statement of the practical importance of English in higher education—one-sided because it considers language merely as a means of communication, and therefore important only as a vehicle of expression.

But is it at all a question of the supersession of Latin and Greek? Either English is vital or it is not vital in our education. If vital, ought it not to be taught in the very best way we know how, regardless of other disciplines, whether effective or ineffective? Are we to admit that a vital discipline is to be taught in a way that is not serious, not scientific? Suppose that President Hadley had been speaking of economics, and had made the point that economics was of great significance to the proper conduct of our national life; and had then gone on to the conclusion that when a body of instructors arose who should be able to teach economic facts with seriousness and earnestness, we could talk about superseding history? Should we not have the right to answer: "It is not a question of superseding anything, it is a question of teaching a vital subject in a serious way; if the teachers of economics in institutions of higher learning cannot teach the subject with due seriousness, it is your duty and the duty of other university presidents to make your instructors teach the subject seriously, and to see that their teaching is effective in your university discipline, quite regardless of the side-issue as to whether economics will or will not supersede some other kindred discipline in your university curriculum"? In like manner have we not a right to ask our universities to teach English effectively, quite regardless of the question as to whether English will supersede Latin and Greek, or not?

This common notion that the question of studying English "seriously" is primarily one of superseding Latin and Greek, rests upon a wrong conception of English and its relation to our national life. The misapprehension is an easy one; for when our present methods are called in question, their most significant weakness lies in the fact that we study this living, constantly developing speech of ours as if it were a classical language whose standards of idiom were to be fixed by ultimate prescription and authority, and whose standards of literature were to be permanently established by a comparison with classic models. It is easy to pass on to the unwarranted conclusion that scientific English study is naturally antagonistic to classical study. Classical study is even now rapidly escaping from mediæval method, and very soon it will come about that the mediæval notions of the classics will be represented solely in our study of English. Latin and Greek are themselves not only permanent factors of culture which cannot be superseded in higher education, but they bear such intimate relations to English study that it would be inexpedient to supersede them if supersession were possible, and this proposed supersession should be resisted tooth and nail by the English student himself.

It would be unfair to overlook the value of President Hadley's frank and practical paper in the New York *Independent*, simply because there is contained in it this common misapprehension of the relation of English to other studies in our higher education. It would be equally unfair to place upon Yale in particular the onus of the admission that English is not seriously and effectively taught in our institutions of higher learning. But we certainly have the right to ask where are those serious-minded instructors of English that President Hadley speaks of to come from, if they do not come from the universities? We can-

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not expect them to fall upon us like beneficent rain from heaven. They must be trained, and be trained by just such universities as the one that President Hadley is the head of, under the strong and effective guiding hand of liberal-minded, far-seeing men like President Hadley himself. And if English is once seriously and effectively taught as a general and necessary discipline in our best universities, the "marvellous" characteristics of its language and literature—characteristics whose "marvellousness" has already been frankly admitted by great Continental scholars—will not be long in striking the minds of earnest students; for these marvels of English belong in a far higher category than the marvels of classical inflection. We cannot afford to wait for revelation to unfold these things to us, when their perception depends only upon intelligent familiarity with the phenomena of English.

It is an unfortunate circumstance that none of the effective administrators of our American universities have made themselves distinguished primarily by their scientific knowledge of their native idiom and their native literature. Chemistry and the physical sciences have been represented by some of the most effective organizers in our educational history; theology and philosophy have likewise numbered between them some of our best college presidents; modern economics and modern classical studies can claim two of the youngest and most promising heads of universities; law and commerce likewise have had their share; but where is the American university that is directed by a president who has had a thorough and first-hand scientific knowledge of English? Each of these other subjects has at one time or another got its proper organization from the first-hand knowledge of the university president himself; modern English study, however, has so far had to depend for its proper place and organization in university curricula upon second-hand executive information and indirect executive sympathy. It may be that here lies the explanation of the presence of that body of incompetent English instructors which President Hadley laments—teachers who handle English mechanically or carelessly, teachers who teach English language and English literature off-hand and without previous preparation, teachers whose work for one reason or another makes no impression, or but feeble impression, upon university life. For surely the removal of such teaching is a question of university administration and executive action, and not a question of the development of higher popular ideals of English education. College presidents cannot expect inefficient and incompetent teachers to remove themselves, nor can they expect that English education will organize itself. Neither can they afford idly to wait for a supposedly possible supersession of Latin and Greek before "talking about" organizing the teaching of English so that this vital subject shall be presented with seriousness and effectiveness.

The whole problem is one of organization, and only awaits the coming of a man of strength and power who can gather together the scattered forces of scientific effort and make them practically effective to higher culture.

PERSISTENCE IN REFORM.

On reading the newspaper report of the proceedings of the Civil-Service Reform Association the other day, in which the Committee speak of the cause being still "in a dangerous condition," I could not help asking myself why, after thirty years of apparently successful agitation, "the cause," as it is called, has not achieved a complete triumph. One of the great difficulties, it seems to me, is that it has received little or no hearty adhesion from American public men. There are a good many in public life who refrain from open opposition to it, but how many active politicians give it a sincere support? Not one dozen, I think. Take as an illustration the case of Gov. Roosevelt. The Governor used to be himself an active and earnest civil-service reformer, but no temptations to be anything else had as yet been offered to him. As soon as he found that political promotion depended upon open alliance with the most truculent enemies of civil-service reform, he began to wabble. I might add several other names of men who were civil-service reformers only until they had something to gain or to lose by continuing their championship of the cause, when they lost their interest in it. Although this may not stop the advance of civil-service reform, it certainly makes its progress slow and hesitating.

Now what is the reason of all this? The reason is that the mass of the people do not learn from the action of the leading public men that the reform of the civil service is of any serious public importance. The reform, in fact, has made considerable progress, but mainly through the exertions of a very small class. Take the case of the revered McKinley. He was supposed to be, if not a civil-service reformer, a man who would not let the cause suffer harm. As a matter of fact, he has done it more injury than all of his predecessors since Gen. Grant. He has during his term diminished the number of officers subject to the rules by ten thousand. His use of the appointing power has been in many cases most scandalous. But has this affected his popularity with the country? Not in the least. He has received as many honors and rewards as any other President, and as much flattery. His disappointing conduct with regard to the civil service has not damaged him at all.

Take the case of Gov. Roosevelt. His adhesion to the civil-service cause was received with great delight by civil-service reformers, but as soon as he found that there was political profit in making friends and allies with its worst enemies, he did so unhesitatingly. The same thing is true, with some modifications, of President Low. Although an advocate of civil-service reform, he has publicly eulogized and acted with its enemies. Senator Lodge, also, although he has never taken the stump in opposition to civil-service reform, has taken a thousand occasions to show that he did not rate its importance very highly.

To invite men of this sort to the annual banquet of the Association will be naturally taken by the mass of plain people as a proof that even the reformers themselves do not consider steady adhesion to reform of much consequence. Suppose a similar thing had been done by the anti-slavery men, or by the anti-corn-law men, or by any sect of religious reformers. What impression would it have made? Why, that the reformers were neither cold nor hot; were, in fact, amusing themselves, and need not be listened to carefully. If Platt can be an estimable public man, in spite of twenty-five years of hostility and contempt for everything connected with reform, what is the use of making such a fuss about it? Why cannot these gentlemen dine about anything else that amuses them—woman suffrage, the liquor traffic, or popular education?

The reason why the work of the abolitionists was so effective was that they allowed nothing to stand in its way or to divert attention from it. This is the important matter in every agitation which has to succeed through strong popular support. If you wish "to make men weep," as the poet says, you must weep yourself; you must not go round the country preaching that everybody who differs from you on some other matter is an ass or a "hoodoo." I used to be a good deal impressed in listening to Wendell Phillips. What he said was often wanting in good taste, and sometimes in fairness, but there was no mistaking what he considered "the main question" of the day. Instead of inviting a pro-slavery man or a "doughface" to dinner, and listening to his blatherskite apologies for his own position, he held him up to the scorn of gods and men.

But the evil of our day is general want of seriousness about any political matter. As long as you are covered by the name "Republican" or "Democrat," especially "Republican," you may burn a "nigger," or attack peaceable "niggers" with State militia, or make fraudulent secret interpolations in a bill, or steal the public funds, or open private letters, or hold fraudulent primaries, or vote for a man whose unfitness for office you have just exposed, or ridicule and violate the Constitution under which you hold office, or pay no attention to the platform of your party. I do not mean to say that similar things might not occur if the Democrats were in power, but the fact is that ever since the Republicans have ceased to be concerned about the rights of the negro, these offences of party workers have made the party platform rather ridiculous reading. But a party can no more allow its name for an indefinite period to cover criminality than can a church. It must, sooner or later, find better work to do than to apologize for rascality or tergiversation. A free government cannot be maintained indefinitely by such means. E. L. G.

STÉPHANIE DE BEAUHARNAIS.

PARIS, December 4, 1900.

'An Adopted Daughter of Napoleon,' such is the title given by M. Joseph Turquan to

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a biography of Stéphanie de Beauharnais, Grand Duchess of Baden—a biography which has no literary merit, but which is nevertheless interesting, as Stéphanie de Beauharnais belongs to the Napoleonic Olympus and was for a long time an ornament of the Imperial Court and a favorite of the Emperor. She was a niece of Josephine; a cousin, therefore, of Queen Hortense and of Prince Eugene, the Viceroy of Italy. Her father was Claude de Beauharnais. Her grandmother, well known in the second half of the eighteenth century, under the name of Fanny de Beauharnais, had great literary pretensions and published various books, which are prized now only on account of their illustrations. She was a friend of Dorat. The Goncourts say of her that "she knew how to listen, and seemed to hear when she really paid no attention. She had made one or two pretty bons-mots and repeated them from time to time."

Stéphanie was born on the 28th of August, 1789, her mother dying when she was still a child. She was put to school at Montauban. Josephine mentioned her existence to Bonaparte. The First Consul, who had Corsican and clannish views, took an interest in the child, who had been much neglected by her father and her grandmother; he ordered the Prefect to have the girl taken out of school and sent to Paris. On her arrival the Consul kissed her on both cheeks; her aunt Josephine found her, says Mme. de Rémusat, "pretty and refined in all her ways." She was sent to the fashionable pension of Mme. Campan, who had been maid to Marie Antoinette and had opened her school after the 9th Thermidor for the children of the aristocracy. All the congregations had been turned out during the Terror, and Mme. Campan had a sort of monopoly. Young Stéphanie found herself at St. Germain with Caroline Bonaparte, the youngest sister of the First Consul. Speaking of her pupil in a letter, Mme. Campan said:

"She is an odd mixture of faculty for learning, of vanity, of emulation, of laziness, of amiability, of youthfulness of mind, of levity, of pride, of piety. Here are many elements to be combined; according as they are well placed or ill placed, they will produce very different results for her happiness or her misfortune. You must take care not to people the court with young, inconsiderate creatures, whom their husbands will find difficult to keep in hand."

An inconsiderate creature—that was a true definition of Stéphanie during the greater part of her life. She was pretty and very coquettish; she quitted the *pension* for the Tuileries, and her head was turned by the splendors of the Court and the exceptional favor which Napoleon showed her. Napoleon entered into a negotiation with the Court of Baden. Prince Charles of Baden, son of the Margrave, was engaged to a Princess of Bavaria; the engagement had to be broken off, and, partly in order to win over the Margravine of Baden, Napoleon declared that he adopted Stéphanie, and she would thus become an Imperial Princess. Prince Eugene also became an adopted son of the Emperor. On the 20th of December, 1805, it was officially announced that Prince Eugene was made Viceroy of Italy and would marry the Princess Auguste of Bavaria, while Stéphanie would marry the young Prince Charles of Baden. The same day was signed the Treaty of Presburg, which erected the Electorate of Bavaria into a kingdom and the Electorate of Baden into a grand duchy. The young Stéphanie was the price of the aggrandizement of Baden. Prince Charles was twenty-three years old. "Without being exactly ugly," says Mademoiselle Avrillon, Josephine's maid, in her Memoirs, "he had not a prepossessing appearance; his white and pink complexion, joined to a fatness uncommon at his age, gave him a little the look of a baby. As he was extremely timid, he was thought a little backward." Madame de Rémusat says that "he was young, but very fat, with a common face, devoid of expression. He spoke little, seemed embarrassed in all his ways, and dozed a little everywhere."

The first impression made by the young Prince of Baden at the Tuileries was not favorable. Stéphanie, after she had been adopted by Napoleon, had her apartment there. She amused Napoleon, and he allowed himself, much more than was proper, to flirt with her. Josephine almost became jealous of her niece, and had to remind her that she ought to reserve all her attentions for her fiancé. The ceremony of the betrothal was celebrated with great pomp in the Diana Gallery. The marriage was the first ceremony which took place after the fall of the monarchy. It was celebrated in the chapel of the Tuileries. Josephine and all the Bonaparte princesses wore all their jewels, and showed themselves with those long trains which have been popularized by the paintings of David. The Princess of Baden had been married, almost by force, to a young Prince whom she almost despised, as she very clearly showed him. The Prince, on his part, had fallen in love with her, and her indifference made him very unhappy. The Emperor had to interfere, and to give Stéphanie counsels which, in his mouth, were orders.

The war of 1806 began. Napoleon and Josephine went to Mayence; Josephine kept court there, and was joined by the Princess of Baden, on the Prince's departure for the war. Baden had entered into the so-called Confederation of the Rhine, together with Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and Hesse-Darmstadt. The act of confederation was a great blow to Austria. Prussia did not join the Confederation, and alone resisted the Emperor Napoleon. The Prince of Baden asked for a place in the army which was going to make war on Prussia. "My son," wrote Napoleon to him, "I have received your letter of the 27th. I approve the desire which you have to participate in the war, and shall be pleased to have you near me. I will see you at Bamberg." Napoleon hoped that Stéphanie would treat her husband with more favor on his return from the war. On the 7th of October he wrote to Josephine: "Stéphanie must be with you. Her husband wishes to see war; he is with me."

Mayence had for a while the amusement of a court. The Empress Josephine, her daughter Hortense, her niece Stéphanie, thought of nothing but of amusing themselves, while great battles were being fought. Madame de Rémusat says that Stéphanie "occupied her days with amusements a little too infantine for her position and her rank." Napoleon wrote from Wittenberg, on the 23d of October, to Josephine: "I write only a word. My affairs are going well. I shall be to-morrow at Potsdam, and on the 25th at Berlin. I am in very good health; fatigue suits me. I am glad to know you are with Hortense and Stéphanie in great company. The weather so far has been fine. Much love to Stéphanie and everybody. Adieu, my friend, wholly yours." This is truly "imperatoria brevitas."

The Prince of Baden remained with the Emperor during the long winter campaign in Poland, which followed the short and brilliant campaign in Prussia. He was afterwards sent to Baden to organize recruiting. After the peace of Tilsit, Stéphanie returned to Carlsruhe. Prince Charles did not find much change in her feelings toward him; they both had to go to Fontainebleau, where Napoleon kept his court, and there Stéphanie allowed Prince Jerome Bonaparte to pay her attentions which were an offence to her husband. Madame de Rémusat remonstrated with her: "She listened attentively when I represented to her that she was compromising her whole future, that her duty as well as her interest engaged her to live well with the Prince of Baden, that she was destined to inhabit other places than France, that it was very likely that Germany would be more severe than Paris upon levities which were tolerated in Paris." The conversations with Madame de Rémusat seemed to have some effect; from this time Stéphanie changed somewhat her manner towards her husband. The reconciliation became definitive after a time, and on the 11th of July, 1811, the Princess of Baden had a child, Louise Amélie Stéphanie (who was married in 1834 to Prince Gustave of Vasa). The harmony was now complete; Stéphanie had another child, a boy, who unfortunately died soon after his birth. In 1813, she had another girl, Joséphine Frédérique Louise (who was married, in 1831, to Prince Charles von Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.

Bad days were approaching for her. The Court of Baden was becoming every day more anti-French; all Germany was rising against Napoleon. Though Stéphanie had become a German Princess, her heart was still French. The Grand Duke of Baden was one of the last to declare himself openly against Napoleon after the battle of Leipzig; but he could not resist the current, and his troops joined in the campaign against France in 1814. Stéphanie's enemies at Carlsruhe openly tried to make the Duke divorce his wife, saying that she had been forced upon him by a tyrant, but Prince Charles behaved like a man of honor. He loved his wife, the mother of his children, who had been sobered by adversity; he made no change in his behavior towards her. The return from Elba and the Hundred Days gave to Stéphanie hopes which came to an end after Waterloo. The Grand Duke was confirmed at the Congress of Vienna in all the possessions which Baden owed to Napoleon. During the campaign of 1815, he had sent 15,000 men into France; they arrived at the time when Waterloo was fought.

Stéphanie could no longer hope to see Napoleon. Circumstances reduced her to the position of a secondary German Princess; she filled it with dignity, trying to help the French exiles, to be of some service to Queen Hortense. Her husband died of a sudden and mysterious disease on the 8th of December, 1818. Though still young, Stéphanie became a dowager, and shut herself up in her castle of Mannheim. People would not believe that the son of Prince Charles was dead; Caspar Hauser was supposed to be this son, who

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19, 39, 60, 80, 120, 140, 159, 178, 199, 217, 238, 258, 276, 297, 317, 335, 356, 374, 393, 413, 433, 452, 475, 498, 518.

ERRATA.

Page 12, col. i., line 5. For "adopting" read "adapting."

Page 253, col. iii., line 46. For "supreme being" read "supreme king."

Page 350, col. i., line 10 from bottom. For "the direct" read "indirect."

Page 381, col. i., line 27 from bottom. For "commander" read "chief of staff."

Page 494, col. iii., line 39. For "Directory" read "Convention."

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had been carried away and concealed. I have no space here to analyze the legend of Caspar Hauser. Princess Stéphanie, in her retreat, was agitated by the noise made for a moment about the enigmatic Caspar. He died, and the enigma was never quite solved. Stéphanie spent the remainder of her life in great seclusion. She was much elated by the accession of Prince Napoleon to the throne, and went several times to Paris to see him; the splendors of the Second Empire reminded her of the splendors of the first. She was so fortunate as not to witness the tragical end of the Second Empire, as she died at Nice on the 29th of January, 1860.

SAMARKAND.

SAMARKAND, October 6, 1900.

From Tashkend to Samarkand is 175 miles over the Central Railroad of Asia. Until two years ago this was purely a military affair, with passenger trains only once a week. Now a daily train each way is well patronized, while two or three freight trains are run daily in each direction. But it attracts no such attention as the Siberian railway does. In Siberia every station is crowded with peasants on the arrival of trains. This is partly to sell their bread and milk and eggs to the third-class passengers, who depend much upon them for food, but also it proceeds largely from curiosity. No such throngs greet the trains in Turkestan. About sixty miles from Tashkend the railroad crosses the Syr Daria River, and is joined by a branch coming down from Andezahn, 170 miles through the fertile province of Fergana, which is the present limit of the Russian domain in that direction. This is one of the richest and most populous of all the Russian possessions in Turkestan, and is the gateway to the Pamir, which extends southward to Afghanistan and India, over the highest plateau in the world. It is buttressed on its four corners by the Ala-tau, the Thian-Shan, the Hindu-Kush, and the Himalaya Mountains, and is appropriately called the "Roof of the World." Nowhere is this plateau less than 10,000 feet above sea level, and much of it is 14,000 feet.

Fergana itself is a well-watered valley of more than 40,000 square miles, between lofty mountain ranges. It has five cities with more than 35,000 inhabitants each, Kokand, its capital, having 82,000. The entire province tributary to this branch of the railroad has a population of 1,560,411, while the population of Zarefshan, the province of which Samarkand is the capital, amounts to 857,847. But these statistics give only a faint idea of the vast human interests represented in this desert-encircled area rendered fertile by streams descending from these inaccessible snow-clad mountain peaks. In both these provinces the interests are predominantly agricultural, and those of the nomad population secondary. Manufacturing is also of more varied forms, and on a larger scale. For ages the inhabitants have maintained a pretty high degree of civilization independent of the outside world. But there are nomad Kirghiz Tartars enough in the provinces to give variety to the scene. I believe it is that veracious observer, Mark Twain, who speaks of having seen the natives in Australia ploughing with a team of kangaroos. I have not seen anything so wonderful as that, but I have seen a team of camels drawing a plough, and in one case a camel and a horse hitched together to do the same service. Nor is it any uncommon thing to see a man or a woman riding a lusty steer and leading a long string of camels. It will be a great while before the railroad and Russian civilization will banish all such incongruous sights.

The city of Samarkand has a present population of 56,000, of whom 16,000 are Russians, and the rest mostly Sarts. It was taken by the Russians in 1868, and the growth of their colony gives some idea of the rapidity with which they are exerting their power in this direction, and of the firmness of their grasp. As in all the other larger centres, however, so here, the Russian element lives apart from the native, and constitutes a city by itself, fashioned in every respect after the best models of European towns. The well-dressed women and the fine equipages one meets on the street would make him forget that he was so far away from the great centres of civilization, were it not for the constant presence everywhere of the military uniform. The present government is a military government. The Russians do not yet trust the native population. It is not taken into the army. Farther west the Turkomans of the Trans-Caspian province have, to some extent, been drawn upon to fill depleted regiments; but the Sarts and Kirghiz Tartars of this region have not as yet been thus honored. The general interest in army affairs was exhibited in Samarkand last Sunday evening in a fair held by the Red Cross Society for the benefit of the suffering soldiers in China. The fair was in the well-shaded park of the Russian city, which was brilliantly illuminated. An admittance of twenty-five cents was charged, but the fair was crowded by natives as well as by Russians. I believe that the admission was less for the natives, and it must be added that one of the attractions was a lottery, at which the daughter of one of the high officials presided.

Samarkand is in every respect the most interesting city of Turkestan. Surrounded on three sides by snow-covered mountains, but itself in a verdure-clad valley of great productiveness, it has from ancient times been called the Eye of the World. About the close of the fourteenth and the beginning of the fifteenth century, Timur the Tartar, more commonly known as Tamerlane, established his capital here, and from it well nigh ruled the world, extending his dominion from Russia to the Persian Gulf, and from Constantinople to the Ganges. Timur likewise made Samarkand a great centre of learning, and he and his successors adorned it with buildings whose proportions and beauty challenge, even in their ruins, the admiration of the world. Four hundred years of neglect and an earthquake two years ago have well nigh destroyed two or three of these splendid edifices, but they all now rear their domes and arches and campaniles high above the mud dwellings of the present wretched city, and look down upon the Babel of an Eastern marketplace where everything is sold, from cotton, and wool, and silk, to perishable fruit, old clothes, and scrap-iron. The best preserved of these is known as the Rigistan. This is a square of 250 feet, open to the street on the south side, but enclosed on the other three sides by lofty, well-proportioned buildings, brilliant in harmonious colors of enamelled brick. Beautiful shaped campaniles adorn the corners, and noble archways lead into interior courts surrounded by cloisters for Mohammedan mollahs. During the Middle Ages the tenants of these cloisters carried the study of mathematics and astronomy to a high degree of perfection, and made their city renowned for learning as well as for war. But now these tenants are a miserable set, only waiting for another earthquake to put an end to their whole business. The campaniles are already far out of plumb, and the noise of the market in the square drowns the devotions of the faithful Mohammedans in the crumbling chapels still in use.

A few hundred yards to the northeast of the Rigistan are the still more extensive ruins of the Bibi Khan, the archway and towers of whose façade were pronounced by Vámbéry a model for such buildings. This, too, was richly colored with enamelled brick. At one time it is said to have sheltered as many as a thousand students, but the earthquake of two years ago has nearly completed its ruin. One of its domes and two of its lofty arches still stand, though ready to fall. Still farther east are the graves of Timur's wives and sisters. These consist of a series of domes, with interior decorations of marvellous beauty, crowning successive terraces reached by forty marble steps. They are still in a fair state of preservation, though birds find a welcome home on all the cornices, and the dust-laden winds have free course everywhere. Still, they continue to stand as noble monuments, all the more conspicuous by reason of the repellent character of everything else in the neglected Mohammedan cemetery to which they form an entrance.

A quarter of a mile to the southwest of the Rigistan is the grave of Timur himself. Here, too, the recent earthquake has wrought the ruin of a portion of the noble pile, but has left uninjured the chapel and lofty dome above the grave itself. This is covered with a large piece of rare jade, and the chapel and whole interior of the dome are adorned with elegant arabesques and inscriptions of gold. Everything about it, both outside and in, is most impressive and appropriate. Indeed, in its time, the splendor of this city was unexcelled anywhere in the world. And it was not barbaric splendor, but that of the highest art of the Saracens. Those who would view it, however, even in ruins, must make haste, for time has already nearly completed its destructive work.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

Correspondence.

THE ARMY CANTEEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly permit me to state a few facts in regard to the army canteen, and to point out some errors which have apparently led you into a disapproval of the institution incomprehensible to those acquainted with its origin, objects, and working? It is conceded on all hands that the one thing which, above all others, shakes the discipline and paralyzes the effectiveness of any military organization, is drunkenness. Officers whose professional reputation depends upon the sobriety of their men, *i. e.*,

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chiefs of companies and higher units, have, therefore, the strongest possible motive for putting down this vice, more or less prevalent in all armies. During the existence of the sutler and post-trader systems, our military service especially was noted for pay-day orgies, which, as regards the extent to which on occasions they affected entire companies and even larger bodies, beggar all description. Both the trader's establishment within the post, vicious in the extreme on account of its debauching effects in various ways, as was abundantly demonstrated by the Belknap impeachment trial, and the vile haunts outside of the post limits, defied the efforts of company and higher commanders to prevent their soldiers from indulging in gross excesses. Exposed, as the soldiers were, to the hardships incident to frontier service, and subsisting on a monotonous and at times insufficient diet, nearly all felt the occasional need of relaxation, which, in the lack of a resort affording rational and innocent recreation, they sought in the bar-room of the trader-store or the low dives grouped about the post. The introduction of the canteen, which in foreign (notably the Swedish and German) armies had proved a potent instrumentality for promoting temperance and discipline, appeared to be the only remedy for this most serious evil. After thorough inquiry into the subject, this was the conclusion, early in 1889, of Secretary of War Endicott, and a few months later of his successor, Secretary (now Senator) Proctor; and particularly the latter, once convinced by experiments at a few posts that the canteen, while adding to the comforts and the contentment of the enlisted man, made him a more temperate, reliable, and efficient soldier, became its champion, and took the necessary steps for bringing about the gradual extinction of the post-trader system, now happily accomplished.

As in the case of every contemplated reform, violent opposition to the change arose, not only from the post-trader and liquor interests on the one hand, and from well-intentioned but badly informed temperance people on the other, but also from a part of the army itself, some of the older officers of which, always slow to approve innovations, honestly thought the canteen would prove ruinous instead of beneficial to the service. The War Department, however, remained firm in its support of the canteen, in the face of the clamor against it from all sides. And it speaks volumes for the institution that now, after the lapse of twelve years, during which it has been tested under war as well as peace conditions, the army is practically unanimous in testifying to its great merits, and in the declaration that it is even more indispensable in the colonies than in the United States. The declared purpose of the canteen, officially known as the "post exchange," which combines the features of reading and recreation rooms, a coöperative store, and a restaurant, "is to supply the troops at reasonable prices with the articles of ordinary use, wear, and consumption, not supplied by the Government, and to afford them means of rational recreation and amusement." The sale or use of ardent spirits in any branch of the exchange, and in any encampment or fort or on any premises used for military purposes, is strictly prohibited; but, on the recommendation of the exchange council, the commanding officer may permit beer and light wines to be sold at the canteen by the drink whenever he is satisfied that giving to the troops the opportunity of obtaining such beverages within the post limits will prevent them from resorting for strong intoxicants to places without such limits, and tend to promote temperance and discipline among them.

Your remarks on the canteen in the *Nation* of December 13 seem to indicate that you have an incorrect understanding of the subject. You speak of the soldiers drinking "Government" beer; intimate that army officers who are unfavorably disposed towards the canteen hesitate to express their opinion, owing to the obvious bias of their superiors and the fear of having their communications pigeon-holed; point out that the trend in navies the world over is to discontinue the grog ration; and suggest that indulgence in light beer, to which the canteen ever tempts the soldier, stimulates his desire for stronger drink.

An entirely different view of the matter is taken by army men of all ranks, the exceptions being so few as to be an almost negligible quantity. They know that the beer dispensed in canteens is not provided by the Government, but by an association of the companies comprising garrison, whose members are the sole beneficiaries of profits realized on beer-sales; they contend that, unless a person in civil life may be properly restrained by law from drinking a glass of beer at his home or club, the same privilege cannot rightly or consistently be denied the soldier, whose only home is his post of duty; they point to the large decrease, since the advent of the canteen, in the number of desertions as well as of all military offences traceable, directly or indirectly, to drunkenness, also to the marked reduction in the sick rate, as proofs positive that the canteen makes for sobriety, good morals, and good discipline; they show that, admitting, for argument's sake, the injurious effects of beer-drinking, even in moderate quantities (the excessive use of beer in canteens is forbidden), soldiers on land cannot be prevented from taking intoxicants, as may be the crews of war-vessels while at sea or even in port.

Whatever sins may be laid at the door of the War Department, it cannot in justice be charged with undue bias towards or the suppression of official criticisms concerning the canteen. From 1889 to the present time it has been at constant pains to keep itself informed of the details of canteen operations; and its refusal to sacrifice so beneficent an institution to selfish interests and blind prejudice entitles it to the gratitude of the army and country. Of course, "the law is supreme"; and should Congress in its wisdom decide to put an end to the canteen, neither the War Department nor the army will seek to evade the decision, however deplorable may be its consequences.

THEO. SCHWAN.

ST. PAUL, MINN., December 17, 1900.

LYNCHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would have added to the interest of Mr. Lawton's letter (*Nation*, December 20) if he had cited some case of real lynching in the Far West "after the war of the rebellion." His remark that, "for protection, people took the law into their own hands," suggests that his allusion is to some procedure very different from lynching. Lynchers do not take the law into their hands. The extemporized courts that administered "frontier" justice gave every accused man a fair trial, and such were never molested if acquitted. But lynchers hold no trial, and they trample on any legal verdict that stands in the way of their mad-dog passions. An enraged mob wants somebody to kill, and cares not whether it has the guilty man or not. Apologetic reporters usually add: "The man confessed his crime," presuming, with too much reason, on popular ignorance and unreason. Usually the reports of confession are false, but in no case would a confession under such circumstances be of legal value unless legally proved to have been freely given, in unmistakable terms, and without any suggestion of possible clemency to be gained thereby.

Lynching will not cease until educated and conscientious people recognize in the lynchers mere vulgar murderers, particularly mean and cowardly murderers, who would fly like hounds if they knew their proposed victim was well enough armed to lay low his first assailants. MONCURE D. CONWAY.

NEW YORK, December 22, 1900.

THE SUCCESS OF THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of October 11, page 281, you speak of the failure of the Exposition. Is not your explanation of the expression somewhat misleading?

You do not mean that the Exposition has not been "an artistic and industrial success," but "rather that the multitudinous holders of bonds secured by tickets to the Exposition will never get their money back. . . . The failure to pay the bonds will consequently bring disappointment to thousands of thrifty families which imagined that they were combining a conservative investment with a gambler's chance."

By the terms of the bond, the price was to be refunded only if the Exposition did not take place. The purchaser acquired the right to twenty entrance tickets; a reduction of 25 per cent. in the entrance fee of every private exhibit, or a round-trip railway ticket at a reduction of one-third; and the "gambler's chance." All of these contracts were fulfilled.

Of the sixty-five million tickets issued, about eighteen millions remained unused. Had the Exposition been wholly ready when it was opened, on the 15th of April, more tickets would have been used, in which case the holder of a bond might have resold his twenty tickets for an amount more nearly approaching the twenty francs which they may be said to have cost.

Was not this also, however, a "gambler's chance"? Of the thirty million tickets issued in 1889, more than 5 per cent. were left uncancelled, and their price fell from twenty to ten cents, although the twenty-five-franc bond of that year is to be repaid in 1964, the year in which the last drawing takes place. Is there not a confusion between the two issues?

A writer in *La Nature* of the 7th of April predicted that the number of entrances to the Exposition would be about fifty millions, basing his calculation upon a discovery that, since 1855, the entrances at the

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succeeding Expositions had increased in a geometrical progression, of which the ratio was 1.78. The following table explains his system:

	Number of entrances observed.	Number calculated.
In 1855.....	5 millions.	5
In 1867.....	8.8 "	$5 \times 1.78 = 8.9$
In 1878.....	16 "	$5 \times 1.78^2 = 15.8$
In 1889.....	28 "	$5 \times 1.78^3 = 28.2$

His conclusion was that the number in 1900 would not vary much from 5×1.784, or 50.2. At his request, B. Picard, Commissioner-General of the Exposition, has just given him the final total, from April 15 to November 12 of this year, as 50,860,893. This approximates very closely to 50.2 millions.

A READER FOR MANY YEARS.

FRANCE, December 10, 1900.

Notes.

The colored plates to illustrate the account of the Harriman expedition to Alaska have delayed the appearance of this book, which will now be one of the spring publications of Doubleday, Page & Co. This firm has begun to issue 'The Furniture of Our Forefathers,' by Esther Singleton, with critical descriptions of the plates by Russell Sturgis. The initial section of seventy-five pages is occupied with seventeenth-century furniture, and contains about fifty illustrations—a score full-page—of beds, chests, tables, chairs, and the rest. The text, clearly and openly printed, contains abundant information about household conditions in the seventeenth century, particularly inventories of furniture, artisans' bills, contracts, etc.—in all, an abundance of entertainment and information for the collector and antiquarian. The work will be complete in eight parts, forming a handsome volume of large octavo size.

Julia Cartwright's 'Madame,' a life of Henrietta, daughter of Charles I. and Duchess of Orleans, is to be published in this country by E. P. Dutton & Co.

We are disposed to congratulate Prof. William R. Ware on the goodness of his memory, on the flattering assumption that he has for seventeen years borne in mind almost our only criticism on his 'Modern Perspective,' namely, in deprecation of his use of *trace* for *horizon* "for the perspective of the horizon of a plane." He singles out his substitution of the former term for the latter, in a note to the original preface of 1882 in the revised edition now brought out, with its portfolio of plates, by Macmillan Co. Some other changes have been made, and an appendix added, and the work is still better calculated than before to furnish solid instruction in its field.

We must all be grateful that Macmillan's 'Library of English Classics' has included an edition of Shelton's translation of 'Don Quixote.' There can be no question that Shelton, in a certain rough-and-ready way and with the advantage of contemporary and colloquial knowledge, struck the Cervantic tone. His rendering of the verses, both the high-stepping and stately and the intentionally "scurvy" (to use his own most happy word), are closer than any other to the spirit and tone of the original. Somehow, our modern bards become self-conscious when they have to mouth it thus largely. So, whatever translations of 'Don Quixote' the Cervantist may have, Shelton should not fail among them, and our only regret, in face of this beautiful three-volume reprint, is that in it the virtue of editorial self-restraint should have been carried so far. It is a cardinal virtue in its way, yet, without going into casuistry, it can be overdone. Some further information, and, especially, references on the earlier editions, would surely have been in place. Such would be to Watts's translation of 'Don Quixote' (vol. i., pp. xvii., ff. of the octavo edition) and Watts's 'Life of Cervantes' (p. 272); to Ormsby's translation (vol. i., pp. v., ff. and vol. ii, p. 552), and to the *Athenæum* (Nos. 2698, ff). Nor is it quite correct to say that the discovery of the edition from which Shelton translated was due to Mr. Fitzmaurice Kelly. Both Duffield and Watts had part of it. Shelton's notes, again, have been reprinted in a most puzzling way, and they sometimes contain page references which are absolutely blind. To balance this, the glossary might be omitted. Its place will be occupied partly by a dictionary and partly by the modern translation—or the original Spanish—which every user of this version will have. Which means that this is a book for Cervantists, and hardly for the multitude, whose 'Don Quixote' must be one and undivided.

It is long since a fresh breeze of fact blew in upon the tangled dreams and superior platitudes of the Omarians. Mrs. Cadell's translation lacked the introduction and commentary which she, too early lost, could have given it, and the biography especially of Omar still dwelt in the midst of darkness and the many inventions which men had sought out. At last Prof. E. D. Ross has lifted the veil in an introduction to an edition of FitzGerald's version which has just been published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, and non-Orientalists (and, for that matter, Orientalists also) are given a view of the true Omar and his life and times such as they never had before. The discussion is scholarly and admirable, though it is evident that Professor Ross could have entered on further details and explanations, if his space had not been limited. We would suggest that the name of the work of Omar's called, on pp. 42 and 66, "Al-kawn wat-taklif," should be "al-kawn wat-takwin." A meaning is hardly thinkable for the first; but, with the second, the book would be on the vexed question between Ash'arite and Mataridite theologians as to whether God had a quality called *Takwin*. The point is of interest as showing Omar's acquaintance with one of the details of scholastic theology. The rest of this edition, except the thirty-two pages left to FitzGerald, is taken up with a commentary of the most exuberant verbosity by H. M. Batson. Mr. Batson has apparently no knowledge of the original, but has made diligent use of all the translations and helps he could find. His work will doubtless delight the Omarians; that of Professor Ross is a genuine contribution.

'The Story of Grettir the Strong,' translated from the Icelandic by Eirikr Magnusson and William Morris (Longmans, Green & Co.), is a new edition, after many years (the preface is dated 1869), of one of the most interesting of the Icelandic sagas. It enjoys the considerable distinction of being the first of the long series of translations made in collaboration by Magnusson and Morris, which have had a recognizedly important influence upon the spread of a knowledge of the Saga literature in England and America. The 'Story of Grettir' is one of the most intelligible of the sagas to us of the present day and generation, because of the world-wide human characteristics of the principal personages and the ready comprehension of their motives of action—conditions that are not shared in equal measure by all the stories of the North. It is, too, as admirable a picture of the culture and superstitions of the old Norsemen as has been preserved in the whole saga literature, and as unmistakable in the fidelity of its outlines to actual fact. Its well-known connection with the Beowulf legend gives it an additional interest to English readers. Like all of these translations by Magnusson and Morris, this is an exceptionally well-made book, with a map, various indices, and explanatory notes. In taking up any of them, however, we cannot help a feeling of regret at the Morrisese—or is it, after all, Magnussonese?—in which it is written.

Like the 'Story of Grettir,' Mr. Hamilton Mabie's 'Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a new edition. Under the author's facile pen, these old tales of the days when the earth was young are retold in a way well worthy of them, and that is very high praise. The unfailing characteristic of the Edda tales in the original is a simple directness in thought and expression, which it is as difficult to catch and to keep when it concerns the childhood of a nation as when it has to do with the childhood of an individual; so wide, in either case, is the distance back to it of the grown-up mind. Mr. Mabie in the present book has admirably retained both the inherent simplicity and the perennial spring-time freshness of these world-old stories, and, what is quite as important as leaving little out, he has brought but little in that is not to be found in the original sources. There are some few incidental statements of which the books are guiltless, but they are not disturbing. Mr. Mabie's 'Norse Stories' come very near to being for the Northern myths what Hawthorne's 'Tanglewood Tales' are for classical mythology, and deserve to be as widely known.

The fascination of mystery finds no better example than in the dear, delightful, horrid dragon which nobody ever saw, and the present season produces a whole 'Book of Dragons,' by E. Nesbit (Harpers), providing a rich feast of shuddering enjoyment. Here we have them, wild as ever, swooping in their ancient fury to devastate a city or to demand a princess for breakfast; and, again, tamed by the clever wiles of a knowing child to become useful domestic creatures, meekly devoted to their bread and milk, and savage only towards bad giants. Purple dragons and green dragons, ice dragons, and dragons of rusty iron, and more kinds than one ever heard of before, parade through these pages, winding their portentous length over land and sea, and lashing through the air the scaly horror of their tails, while children well protected from their claws and awful teeth may watch and wonder at their dreadful antics from the safe nursery castle.

In 'Nigger Baby and Nine Beasts' (Ess Ess Publishing Co.), Alma Florence Porter tells nine animal stories of unusual originality. They may be "founded on truth," as the title-page announces, but fancy has generously built and decorated the superstructure. The little motherless wild Western girl wins sympathetic interest for her-

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self and for the various animal friends so affectionately pictured. And if these latter seem to show more than the degree of sense commonly allotted to them, we are willing to believe that our stupidity may have more to do than theirs in fixing the accepted limit of animal intelligence.

The intention of the author of 'America, Picturesque and Descriptive,' Mr. Joel Cook (Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.), has been to make not only a work of reference, but a summary, in an acceptable and interesting form, of geographical and historical facts, picturesque attractions, peculiarities, productions, and other most salient features of the country; to gather these into an artistic and interesting whole not too heavily burdened with statistics, nor too prolix in description. The work has been mainly prepared from notes taken by the author during many years of travel in North America, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Alaska to Mexico. Following the method of a similar work on England, the text has been arranged in twenty-one tours, each beginning at one of the older settlements on the eastern coast, and following much such a route as the sight-seer is apt to adopt with a tour in view. In this manner the book partakes of the nature of a guidebook, or rather of a cicerone who, familiar with the scenes through which a traveller is passing, enlivens the journey with instructive and agreeable conversation. Having in view the possibilities of becoming flippant or tiresome, on the one hand, or of falling into the ways of an advertising agent or courier, on the other, it must be confessed that the author has trimmed his sails very successfully, and produced a work which is much more interesting than the bare statement of the plan would lead one to expect. We have found the text both entertaining, instructive, and well-written, the illustrations unusually good, and the get-up of the book, including a very full index, all that could reasonably be asked.

The compilation of the annals of criminal justice which Mr. J. B. Atlay offers under the title, 'Famous Trials of the Century' (New York: Herbert S. Stone & Co.), requires little notice. With the exception of the Tichborne case, which involved important questions, the trials here reported were of no great consequence, and the once fetid particulars arouse scarcely more feeling now than the sins of Sodom and Gomorrah. The general public, which Mr. Atlay hopes to interest, would be better employed than in reading his book. The only justification for preparing it would be to impart instruction in the law; a purpose which the compiler expressly disclaims. Nevertheless, we must recognize a deftness of touch, particularly in the opening sentences of each case, that softens our repugnancy, and leads us to wish Mr. Atlay success in literary ventures of a higher order.

The Vanderbilt Oriental Series, edited by Profs. Tolman and Stevenson, deserves a word of welcome as an American undertaking. It is not so ambitious nor so important in its beginnings as is the like-named Harvard Series. Professor Little comes forward with the initial publication, an 'Index to the Chāndogya-Upanishad,' which is to be followed by another volume containing the text. It is not quite obvious why the present index should be arranged on so elementary lines. Surely no student of the Upanishads needs to be told, *e. g.*, that *katamas* is "nom. sg. m." But a special index is always liable to be of use, and this one appears to be complete. Under subjunctive forms might have been noticed the fact that there is no case of subjunctive in the Upanishad other than the imperatively used first persons; and under *ākāça* should have been given 'air' as Böhtlingk's latest definition of the fifth element. Major Jacob's index to all the principal Upanishads might gracefully have been referred to by the author of this index to one of them, though this is on different lines. The plan as conceived is well executed.

The little manual by M. Yve-Plessis (Paris: H. Baragou; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) entitled 'Essai de Biblio-thérapeutique' is preëminently practical. It treats, first, of the hygiene of books, or how to preserve them from the injuries of damp, dust, worms, noxious germs, etc.; and, secondly, of the therapeutics of books, or how to repair their damages—the latter section being divided into *medicine*, or the treatment by remedies, chemical or other, and *surgery*, where instruments, apparatus, or fire is required. An idea of the practical character of the book may be gathered from the subjects treated in the second section, viz., spots (of mud, grease, ink, etc.), "foxing," washing (with formulæ for bleaching-baths, and even the best method of detaching a single damaged page); the reparation of rents and restoration of missing parts; the art of filling up worm-holes in paper or leather; reparations to binding, from simple refurbishing to the restoration in facsimile of portions entirely lost. Recipes for pastes, glues, varnishes, artificial leather, and *mastic de peau* are given, and all the processes minutely explained. A full bibliography of the subject lends additional value to this little book, which should be known to every librarian, bookbinder, and bibliophile.

MM. Garnier Frères send us, in the convenient selections from Italian classics comprised in the "Collection Dejob," 'Boccace.' Here one will find copious extracts, with narrative links in prose, from Boccaccio's poem, 'Il Ninfale Fiesolano,' twelve extracts from the introduction and tales of the 'Decameron,' and one each from the Commentary on the Life of Dante and the 'Corbaccio'—in all enough to represent fairly Boccaccio's various literary activities. The well-known specialist M. Henri Hauvette of the University of Grenoble supplies a compendious introduction and notes. The selections are made *virginibus puerisque*, and the book is obviously attractive for reading collateral to Dante, whether for class or private use.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for December, Mr. F. F. Hilder summarizes the present information in regard to the gold-bearing districts of the Philippines. These are to be found in nearly every province of Luzon in veins in the mountains, in river sands, and in alluvial deposits. In regard to the island of Mindanao, he quotes Sir John Bowring's statement that in the interior "gold dust is the instrument of exchange . . . and is carried about in bags for the ordinary purposes of life." Other articles are upon the teaching of physical geography in elementary schools, by Prof. R. E. Dodge, and the Wyoming fossil-fields expedition of July, 1899. This included a visit to the little known Grand Cañon of the Platte. It is about eight miles in length, with walls rising perpendicularly from five hundred to a thousand feet above the water. At one point "the channel below is less than fifty feet in width, and above it is so narrow that even a person unaccustomed to the use of his left hand could easily throw a stone left-handed across the chasm." From the remains of driftwood on the walls it is evident that in the floods the river rises at least a hundred feet. Some interesting pictures illustrate the article.

Emperor William has, by an edict to the Prussian Minister of Education, Dr. Studt, given his consent to further reforms of secondary schools in the spirit of those instituted eight or nine years ago. The claims of the three classes of higher secondary schools are to be settled on the principle of their general educational equivalency. The consequent extension of the privileges of the Realschulen, it is hoped, will prove the best means of raising these institutions in the favor of the people, and of increasing their attendance. The so-called Reformgymnasien (at Altona, Frankfort, and a score of other places), with a common substructure of four years, are pronounced a success, and the plan is to be continued and extended. Aside from these general provisions, the Emperor desires that more prominence be given to the study of English in the gymnasia, even at the expense of French, and he has no objection to the strengthening of Latin in the gymnasium and Realgymnasium, considering that the equal value of the three types of higher secondary schools once recognized, each may advantageously emphasize its own peculiarities. On the whole, the royal educationalist indulges the hope that the antagonism between the humanistic and the realistic tendencies in higher education will be lessened in consequence of the new regulations. The introduction of the Russian language in some of the Berlin gymnasia, which was not long ago mentioned in these columns, has led to the adoption of the same measure in one or two of the schools of the Bavarian capital.

—The distinguished physicist, Dr. Oliver Lodge, who has been taken from his chair at Liverpool to become the first Principal of the new University of Birmingham, has signalized his entry upon office by making what will seem to most American teachers a very revolutionary proposal with regard to examinations. The passage in his address which deals with this topic is thus reported:

"His proposal in essence amounted simply to this—that examinations should not immediately follow teaching; that a vacation interval should intervene for private study and revision, quiet thought, assimilation, and digestion. Students should not be taken straight from a lecture-room into an examination-room so that they might tell the examiner what the professor had said before they had time to forget it. Real education was not an affair of the memory only; the mind was a live thing, which not only received and incorporated, but by brooding and experience enlarged and increased the store of facts and recognized or forged links which connected them with each other. The process of education was not like packing clothes into a portmanteau by a teacher, to be extracted again at the end of the journey by an examiner. Even if the portmanteau were securely fastened and free from holes, even if it had not to run the gauntlet of Custom-house officers, this process would be a wholly inadequate analogy of what ought to occur. He would liken examinations, not to unpacking but to fishing, not to pulling clothes out of a portmanteau, but fishes out of a pool; and teaching he would liken to the stocking of a pond with perch. 'So he wished to urge that

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a long vacation should be left between instruction and examination; that the examinations be held in September instead of at the end of June. If no interval for rumination was afforded during student days, if the unrooted ideas were pulled up for inspection by the examiner at the end of each session and the student turned loose in the holidays, empty, swept, and only partially garnished, for a period of complete idleness before another filling-in process began, then the last state of that man was liable to be little better than the first."

—The method of speedy unpacking, it may be observed, has never been applied to the candidates for honors in either of the two older English universities. The Schools examinations at Oxford and the Tripos examinations at Cambridge cover the work of two previous years, including at least one long vacation as well as several Christmas and Easter vacations of from four to six weeks each. Indeed, it is a commonplace with such students that the vacation is the time for quietly working over and digesting the lectures of the previous term. But with the candidates for a pass or "poll" degree, coming up time after time for this or that snippet of requirement, the case is very different, and we suspect that Dr. Lodge has found the practice of quick returns—with proportionally small profits—also in vogue at Liverpool and Birmingham. Even there, however, there is some slight inducement to the undergraduates to study subjects rather than just reproduce a set of lectures, in the fact that their papers (or examination "books," as we say here) are read by "outside" examiners. Moreover, the subjects of study are there grouped in such a manner as to put serious obstacles in the way of a choice of exclusively "soft courses," while still allowing a large freedom of election. Certainly, the "course" which the American student puts gayly behind him, after wresting from it a "C" towards the prescribed number for his degree, often leaves wonderfully little residuum after a year or so. But we observe that the Principal of the University of Birmingham is still in the stage of "liking to learn the opinion of the undergraduates with respect to the time of year most suitable for holding university examinations." Undergraduate nature is much the same the world over; and perhaps when Dr. Lodge has succeeded in carrying out his idea in Birmingham, it will be time enough to consider a like reform on this side of the water.

—It is recorded of Dorothea von Schlegel that, on being urged to exchange her knitting-needles for a pen, she replied: "There are far too many books in the world, and far too few stockings." There is a certain implication of sex distinction in her highly sensible repartee, but one cannot say that such a distinction is maintained to the disadvantage of women in the modern art of making ephemeral books. Men and women alike rush in with perfect assurance where Frau von Schlegel declined to tread. We are left to conjecture what class of readers it is on which publishers count with such obvious success. A typical case for such a speculation is Louise Jordan Miln's 'Woo[illegible]gs and Weddings in Many Lands' (Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.). Here we have a work of some four hundred pages, beautifully printed on fine paper, beautifully bound in white and gold. The illustrations of all possible varieties of bride and groom have the usual excellence of the modern reproduction of a good photograph. This was, in fact, eminently a book to be made ornamental, as are most books that seem to have no useful end. The subject is not without interest for the ethnologist, but he would find little that he could not improve on in Mrs. Miln's trifling chapters. They are, for the most part, but by no means always, suitable for a girls' magazine or a fashion paper. They describe with amazing gusto the ceremonies, presents, and trousseaus of some twenty-eight brides of as many nationalities; and on almost every page is a warning to women not to neglect an opportunity, however unpromising, of joining these many-colored ranks. Mrs. Miln reverses *Punch's* advice with an almost frenzied vehemence. Though a Vassar girl, she is apparently English, at least by marriage, and is so afraid of falling in the same category as "the blue-stockings of New Jersey"—whatever that type may be—that she indulges in enough gush to furnish forth handsomely a dozen colleges for women. Her slipshod style and happy egotism are at their worst in two perfectly gratuitous pages, from which we select the following: "I do not like the Germans; I admire them; I must. I respect them; I must, indeed. But I don't love them. They don't move me. My pulse slows down when I am in Germany. . . . I have an affection for the Jews. But in the concrete, the Germans repel me. . . . I do not like to be with the Germans. . . . I never sat down to a piece of work with less desire than to this attempted study of German women, and I have rarely had a piece of work grip me more," and so on *ad nauseam*. Mrs. Miln's powers of discrimination may be gauged, not unfairly, from a single sentence, written in July last: "In the Boers we have contemptible foemen; in the Chinese we shall have great, if our foemen they must be." That is a judgment which should prove hard of digestion for the least critical supporter of the ephemeral in literature.

—The 'Fauna Hawaiiensis,' or zoölogy of the Hawaiian Islands, issued by coöperation of the Bishop Museum of Honolulu with a special committee of the British Association, is appearing with commendable promptness, and with the elegance characteristic of the University Press of Cambridge, England. Already five parts have appeared, including well-illustrated memoirs by Forel on the ants; Meyrick on the Macrolepidoptera; D. Sharp on the plant-eating beetles; R. C. L. Perkins, who personally collected most of the material in all orders, on the bees, wasps, Orthoptera, Neuroptera, and the curculionid and other beetles; and E. R. Sykes on the land and fresh-water shells. The isolation of the islands lends great interest to questions as to the origin of their fauna, the local evolution of species, and the census of larger groups. All the facts collected point to the gradual evolution of the present fauna of land invertebrates from casual immigrants during an immense period of time. A certain number of forms have, of course, been recently introduced through the agency of man, but the following notes refer to the endemic fauna. The total absence of certain types of insects for which the region is adapted, and the preponderance of others in unwonted profusion, point distinctly to the haphazard arrival of progenitors. Thus, of the three great groups of plant-eating beetles, only one is represented, with fifty-four species, of which forty-three belong to a locally peculiar group, evidently developed on the spot, and whose nearest allies are North and Central American or West Indian. Of the Orthoptera nearly all are Locustidæ, or crickets, with forty-four endemic species, chiefly with Polynesian affinities. The Neuroptera are nearly all dragon-flies or lace-wings. The Macrolepidoptera, with nearly 300 species, have 89 per cent. endemic, and in a broad way this part of the fauna resembles that of New Zealand, though special groups seem Asiatic or American in origin.

—The larger groups probably descended from a single type. Excessive variability and close resemblance of allied species, perhaps arising from the absence of conditions of competition for existence, are characteristic. Dull colors, with a tendency to dusky suffusion in brighter forms, are noticeable even in introduced species; a feature which Meyrick suggests may be correlated with the moisture of the climate. The Hymenoptera also show a strong tendency toward black coloration, while those of special islands, though different structurally, show for each island a tendency to a local color-pattern in common. These peculiarities are referred to local influence of the environment rather than mimicry. There is only one endemic ant, and the four principal groups of Hymenoptera present might all have been developed from four ancient immigrants. Most of the species of insects are of small size and inconspicuous appearance. The end islands of the chain have the greatest number of peculiar species, receiving immigrants only from one direction, while the intervening islands receive them from both sides. All the indications point toward Kauai as the oldest, as it is the most eastern, of the Hawaiian group. These volumes are of fundamental scientific importance, and the authorities of the Bishop Museum are to be congratulated on the good judgment which prompted a coöperation already so fruitful in important results.

SMYTH'S MELIC POETS.

Greek Melic Poets. By Herbert Weir Smyth, Ph.D. Macmillan Co. 1900.

A book like this of Dr. Smyth's proves that, at the end of the century, we are drifting straight back toward the rocks of the ancient Sirens. So long as our schoolmasters confined themselves to literal translations of German text-books, with their annotations and their quotations from Goethe, the danger was more apparent than real. But when it comes to original and captivating work like this, the Sirens are already in sight. For here is a book, displaying an erudition and thoroughness which we usually call German, a lucidity, neatness, balance, and judgment which we may fairly call French, associated with a breadth and delicacy of literary culture which we expect from Cambridge and Oxford.

The most striking fact, as one glances over an anthology of Greek lyric poetry, is the ruin which has befallen that whole department of literature. Nowhere has the hand of time been more careless, more capricious, more tantalizing. With the exception of rare and slight fragments rescued from the

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dust-heaps of the grammarians, the metrists and rhetoricians, from Athenæus and Stobæus and the Scholiasts, this briliant edifice of the imagination, with its manifold beauties, has vanished as completely as the temple of its great patron and deity at Delphi. Pindar alone was transmitted to us with some adequateness and completeness; it is only within a few years that some satisfactory relics of Bacchylides were patched together by Mr. Kenyon and his coadjutors. With this exception, there is hardly, in Dr. Smyth's selections of 160 pages, a single complete poem to be found which can be ascribed to the earlier and greater masters; only one of the two odes from Sappho being preserved entire. And yet, among these writers, there were two, at least, of the first rank, worthy to be placed beside Pindar, and appealing in some directions to the modern mind more effectively than Pindar. These two were Sappho and Simonides. Besides these, there were others sufficiently rare and unique in style and individuality to have left a strong impress on the most admired Latin poets—on Catullus, for example, and on Horace. Such artists sat at the feet of Sappho and Alcæus and Anacreon; they echoed and imitated their verses and their metrical forms; we see more, perhaps, of their originals in the mirror of these imitations than in the poor fragments which survive to us of the Greek. Even a minor lyrist, Bacchylides, could impress the memory and influence the expression of so great a craftsman as Sophocles.

There is no reason to doubt, therefore, that the body of Greek lyric poetry would compare in genius, in power, and in human interest with the remains, so fortunately preserved to us, of the great tragedians. Springing directly from the life and manners of the people, it always continued in touch with their daily life; and, under this constant influence, it assumed a rich and varied development which cannot be paralleled exactly in our modern literature. The folk-songs, which grew spontaneously from every occasion and ceremony, became glorified and transformed in the hands of the great poets, but they never strayed far from the vital sources of their inspiration. They branched out into a bewildering variety of forms, adapted to their several occasions, and demanding each its special treatment and rhythms and musical modes. There were hymns for gods and men—for supplication and invocation and thanksgiving—for weddings and funerals, for triumphs and festivities. They were classified according to a minute scientific nomenclature; the list reaches nearly a score of titles of subdivisions, which have descended from the Alexandrian littérateurs, and which, though a trifle pedantic, correspond fairly to the types that were actually developed. We have nothing to match this profusion, either in Italian or in French, or in our own literature. Our own lyric development, in its highest forms, has been almost exclusively literary. We had our period of the minstrels and the ballad-makers, it is true, and that period left its strong but rude mark upon our anthologies. But the march of the greatest Greek lyric poetry was step by step with Greek life. In the greatest period of their history, it was always composed directly and immediately for musical and choral performances, whether public or private. It was not written in a closet, to be hidden in a book, and to be read again in the silence of a room. It was designed to be the crowning grace of some splendid religious function or procession; or it was flung out "to live again upon the lips of men," and in the ear of some susceptible audience of banqueters garlanded with flowers. That was the way in which Pindar and Anacreon and Alcæus "published"; this was the sort of occasion and public to which even Sappho and all the song-writers came, in time, to appeal. The Attic symposium became a sort of centre of culture, a literary exchange where each guest contributed not merely what he recalled from the lyric poets, but lyric bits from tragedy or comedy, favorite selections from the wit and wisdom of Menander and his school. It was at such a gathering that Solon first heard one of Sappho's songs, and prayed "that he might learn it before he died." "There was practically no limit," says Dr. Smyth, "to the choice of the singer. The symposium was a school for strengthening an Athenian gentleman's acquaintance with the masterpieces of Greek song. . . . Books of selections for Sympotic singing came into existence with choice ῥήσεις; and the earliest anthologies may have grown up in a society whose chief social delight consisted in the banquet graced by song." No better Academy could be imagined than such groups of critics, keen, enthusiastic, and responsive, where a Solon might make one of the company, and a Pindar might find fit mark for his winged shafts of wisdom.

If we inquire what themes inspired these songs, what topics dominated the imagination and the minds of this nimble-witted race, we shall find, in glancing over this selection, the same commonplaces which are as fresh and as ancient as the sunrise and the morning dew. War and wine and women; prayers to the gods and their praises; the round of seasons and of man's life—the mutability of things, the certainty of death and fate—such are the highroads over which the poet travels, and on which Dr. Smyth has set his little sign-posts of quotations so aptly and so tastefully to catch the eye of the passionate pilgrim. Last of all—and least of all, we might almost add—comes the motive of love; and this is a strange thing to report of any lyric anthology. You may take a hundred English songs, from Chaucer to Milton, and you will find that, with great variety in quality, in sincerity, and in genius, not one in ten—hardly one in twenty—deals with any other theme. They deal, of course, with all the commonplaces we have mentioned, but all paths end in this goal and lead to it; the poets' thoughts cluster about this motive, their conceits and fancies hover about it, they invest it with a hundred rainbow hues; if they describe nature, it is nature as seen through the lover's eyes. At Athens, however, our masculine academy of boon companions was not so fortunate in cultivating this particular flower. They had their love-songs, as might be expected; volumes of love-songs were written before the time of Demosthenes. They have been almost totally lost; and from what we hear of their character, they were well lost. We might perhaps say the same, judging from the fragments which survive. With all their sparkle and grace of fancy and expression, they emerged from a topsy-turvy state of society. No genius can evolve love-poetry that deserves to last from a social world that is exclusively masculine, or diversified only by the charms and companionship of courtesans. The highest tone which we can expect from such intercourse would be that sprightly manner and trifling grace which Horace borrowed so successfully from Ibycus and Anacreon. Sappho strikes a higher note because it is ennobled by the sincerity of passion. Yet her two famous odes are simply a frank pursuit of passion, or a still franker and very accurate description of its symptoms. It is worth while to compare the latter poem with Drayton's sonnet, "Since there's no help, come, let us kiss and part," and again with Lovelace's farewell to Althea, if we wish to trace some grades of transition toward the complexity and sublimation of our modern sentiment. Even as it is, the stage represented in the Sapphic ode is a long step beyond the Anacreontic—a long step upward on the rounds of that ladder which, resting on earth and the earthy instinct, climbs to the skies in Dante's Beatrice and his

"Amor che move il sole e l'altre stelle."

It is a curious reflection that Plato should have divined more of Dante's gospel than Sappho—a gospel which was indeed "to the Greeks foolishness," until they were approaching their decadence. One would have liked to question this feminine wonder of the world; this accident of her race; this accident of artistic perfection never repeated in her sex; this unsolved riddle—one would have liked to ask this sphinx to solve another riddle, why it is that her sex, which is capable of living like a poem, is incapable of writing the highest poetry; why it should be left to men to interpret in words ideals which woman best interprets in life. Above all, why should we depend on men for the best and highest love poetry? These would be fair questions to put, at some Elysian symposium, to the most original genius and the greatest artist among women that history has ever reported.

Sappho is a personality always interesting, and the latest news of her is what we should all like to believe. This is contained in a little poem, coming from Egypt, in an exceedingly mutilated condition, and restored with reasonable probability. It reveals a glimpse of her attitude toward her brother Charaxus, and the escapade which is referred to by Herodotus. Charaxus had become infatuated with a beautiful slave, Doricha or Rhodopis, whom he met at Naucratis, and had ransomed her and carried her off in his ship. It is well known that Sappho had reproached him for this; yet it was not certain just why she had reproached him. Whether her own famous ode appealing to Aphrodite was addressed to a man or to a woman, was long a moot question, hanging for its decision upon a single letter of the alphabet. The latest manuscript evidence decides that it was addressed to a woman, and therefore upsets a conjecture of Welcker's by which he was desirous to support his gallant defence of her character. However perplexing this may be, this little poem, so far as we can divine its meaning, gives just the impression we should desire. In it she prays for the safe return of her brother from beyond the sea, and his delivery from the reproach of his citizens; she prays also that he may utterly forget the differences and the estrangement which were breaking her heart. The sensitiveness which she displays for her brother's

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reputation lends no color to the inferences that might be drawn from the passionate tone of her best preserved odes, nor to the gossip of the later Attic comedy. What sort of a picture should we draw of Socrates from the "Clouds" of Aristophanes?

There is another point in which these songs offer resemblances as well as contrasts to the modern spirit, and that is the sentiment for Nature which they display. This is a large matter, fitter for a dissertation than for an *obiter dictum*. It is easy to see that the Greeks had a real love for Nature, a nice observation, and a hearty enjoyment of its aspects. They could hardly be children of the soil without absorbing that sentiment in every breath and every glance of the eye. The sites of their temples and their theatres, commanding prospects of unrivalled beauty, were certainly not chosen by accident or on principles of pure convenience and economy. The feeling for Nature, the consciousness of the life and beauty of Nature, break out in every page almost of this selection. Sappho, perhaps, leads the way in this feeling and its expression; from her we have a succession of picturesque hints and similes—the delicious sentiment of Hesper bringing home what Dawn has scattered—the grotto where sleep descends amid murmuring waters and the rustling leaves—the sole apple left by the pickers on the topmost bough. One would think that this little string of gems had been carefully beaded together by some judicious collector, instead of being a little random treasure, gravely rescued, in many cases, by Hephæstion as samples of metre! Such as they are, they differ from their fellows only in a certain exquisite appositeness and truthful felicity. Pindar has the same gift of hinting in a few phrases some delicate harmony of light and color, of golden rays sifted on pansies through dim forest recesses. On the whole, Nature is in these verses simply as a part of man's life and environment—a portion as inevitable and spontaneous as the water he drinks and the air he breathes. It is reflected in the stream of song, gliding melodiously towards its goal, as casually as the river catches gleams and glints of the sky and clouds and trees because they are above it and around. But Nature in itself, we may say, was never the goal. It was felt and expressed simply and frankly, as one enjoys breathing fresh air without thinking much about the process. It was felt with the pleasure of our own ballad-writer, with his

> "In summer, when the shawes be sheen,
> And the leaves be large and long."

With just such contentment does Alcman picture the "sleep of the mountain peaks and glens and jutting headlands, and all the tribes of creeping things that the dark earth doth nourish." But description for its own sake we encounter seldom—perhaps never. Sophocles suggests merely the landscape of Colonus where his nightingales sing; Euripides merely sketches in the outlines of that scene on Cithæron where Pentheus is to meet his doom, and, having once placed his actors, hastens swiftly to the close of his dramatic narrative. But he was a student of the sea from his grotto at Salamis; and he was quite capable of imaginative lyrics that were filled with vague echoes of its mystery, and the fascination of far-off lands, to which its watery highways lead. There are odes in his "Hippolytus" and his "Iphigenia among the Taurians" which beget the mood of Keats's—

> "The voice that ofttimes hath
> Charmed magic casements opening on the foam
> Of perilous seas in faery lands forlorn."

Still rarer is the attempt to make Nature serve as a contrast, or as a harmony with the mood of the actor. In our ballad, "The Twa Corbies," for instance, the figure of the abandoned knight and the barren landscape are keyed together absolutely in a monotone of gloomy desolation. Nothing has come down to us to match this powerful bit of imagination; but the same device is used by Theocritus with great beauty and effect in that incantation scene where the forsaken damsel, as she invokes the "Queen-moon, and the Stars that follow at her chariot wheels," contrasts the hush and calm of the Sicilian Sea with the tempest of despair and passion that possesses her own soul. In lighter vein, and with consummate art, Ibycus compares the springtide with the perpetual spring of love that reigns in his heart.

Still less did Nature *possess* the spirit of the Greek poet, play upon it, and "make him her lyre," as Shelley says. No such conscious myth-maker as Shelley ever arose among that race of myth-makers. Such passion for Nature as his, such possession by it; such sympathy with the processes of her eternal workshop as is shown in "The Cloud," or the "Ode to the West Wind," was reserved exclusively for the modern mind as it broods and watches

> "That subtler Sphinx renew
> Riddles of death Thebes never knew."

When we reach Wordsworth, with his mystical interpretations and beliefs, his sense of the oneness of himself with Nature and its Creator, we encounter a note pitched, perhaps, beyond the hearing of the ancients, and a doctrine which, though quite as Platonic as Christian, never found its chosen *vates sacer* among the Greeks. The Greek enjoyed Nature, but never submitted to its inspiration; it was his minister, not his master.

There is another species of lyric poetry which, by accident, is adequately represented in our collections, and which, nevertheless, is furthest removed from our sympathies and understanding. This is the type illustrated with great splendor and genius by Pindar, and preserved to us largely by the superlative merit of his poetry—the so-called *epinicia*, written to celebrate victory and victorious in races and athletic contests in the great national games. These, as every one knows, were pursued with intense ardor, under religious auspices, with the most brilliant and imposing ceremonies, amid scenes of beauty heightened by all the adornments of art. The victor was rewarded by his countrymen with public honors and adoration, such as can be paralleled only in our own country at the present day. We, at least, ought to be able to understand such ardor and abandon. We have it ourselves—we have the same passion for athletic sports—we make a religion of it, as they did, and with us it is a cult, mainly, of the three goddesses of greed, knavery, and vulgarity. The Greek athlete worshipped the Graces; he was so simple as to be satisfied with a wreath of bay or parsley, instead of a share of "gate-money"; instead of the process-photographs in the daily *Cosmos*, he demanded a statue by a Scopas or a Praxiteles; instead of a column of eulogy and slang for Sunday reading, he was honored by a banquet at his home-coming, and heard his praises chanted in an ode, written by some poet of the order of a Milton or a Shelley. This was a mad world, certainly, where the prize-ring was reconciled with æsthetics; it was not our world, and hence we investigate it painfully from afar with erudite telescopic vision. This, however, was the domain of Pindar and Bacchylides.

The lately discovered papyrus fragments of Bacchylides increase our specimens of this *genre*, and give us a number of almost complete poems which, perhaps, we would willingly have exchanged for a book of Sappho or some dirges by Simonides. In saying this, however, we by no means intend to underrate the interest of the latest flotsam from Egypt. Dr. Smyth is fortunate in being the first to include in a general collection all of these odes which offer a sufficiently clear meaning and continuity. The most striking feature which they present is the resemblance of their plan to that of Pindar. An ode of Bacchylides is laid out on exactly the same lines as one of Pindar, it follows the same architectural design—it is composed, one might say, after the same recipe. It has the same turns and transitions. Its invocation and vestibule, its wise saws and maxims, its myth nicely hinged and jointed to the exordium and the conclusion, its pattern and mechanism, are as like Pindar's as two peas. The very trick of introducing the myth by some sententious turn of thought and phrase is here repeated. It is necessary, of course, to qualify this statement a little. The general resmblance, which is surprising at first sight, is not fully borne out on minuter examination. Bacchylides is probably the imitator, if there is imitation; his craft is not so cunning, his process is not so inevitable as Pindar's; the structure is not so organic, so welded together by the heat of imagination. It is the clever, deliberate effort of an artist working after a stereotyped form. This form, it is generally assumed, was struck out, in its main outlines, by the genius of his uncle Simonides. The *manner* of Bacchylides resembles that of his great kinsman much more than Pindar's; and this was to be expected. Bacchylides expresses himself with great simplicity, directness, and lucidity, in a limpid stream of diction which imposes no harsh compulsion on syntactical rules, and demands no effort from the reader or the listener. If Hiero preferred his poetry to Pindar's, it may have been for this plain and sufficient reason. He draws from the great "Homeric banquet," as others did, and he sometimes does this even *verbatim*. His style makes this possible and natural, for it has affinities with the epic directness and flow. Grace, sweetness, fondness for color, a gift for fluent, picturesque narrative, studded by ornate epithets—these qualities combined entitle him fairly to the epithets of the "clear-voiced island bee" and λάλος Σειρήν—a compliment which is truly untranslatable, but which recalls "Lalagen dulce loquentem."

This volume of selections was much needed. In addition to the specimens of Bacchylides and the new poem of Sappho, it includes the Delphic pæan to Dionysus, the pæan of Aristonous, the two hymns to Apollo, with music and musical notation, discovered in the Treasury of the Athenians,

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as well as the pæan of Isyllus of Epidaurus. The appendix contains a convenient selection from the Anacreonteia, and certain "Scolia" attributed to the Sages. Dr. Smyth has thus added the discoveries of the last decade or two, and has made his anthology the completest of its kind accessible to the student. Dr. Smyth's editorial labor, moreover, is of rare and permanent value; it has made his work a delight to both students and scholars. The text has received the benefit of his special study and great learning in dialectic forms. The annotations evince everywhere the most exact and copious scholarship. The literary illustrations remind one of Prof. Shorey's Horace, and constitute a unique atraction—a storehouse of pleasure for the man of taste and leisure. Under a certain line of Sappho we find parallels quoted from Alcman, Pindar, Theognis, Theocritus, Virgil, Ovid, Shakspere, Dante, Johnson, Manzoni, and Keats. We note these names to show the range of reading which they imply. The illustrations are as apposite and pertinent as they are abundant; and this opulence of quotation is not a piece of ostentation, but part of the author's plan. The general introduction, treating of the varieties of melic poetry, is a luminous and condensed treatise, summing up the result of much independent research; while the special sketches, characterizing the style and traits of individual poets, are better done than anything of the kind which can be found in the same compass. They have the delicacy, clearness of cut, and sureness of so many cameos. Dr. Smyth's former work on the Ionic Dialect was a sufficient testimony to his erudition and exact scholarship; the present volume proves him to be also a man of letters and a critic of rare taste, insight, and literary equipment.

ELEANOR, AND OTHER FICTION.

Eleanor. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Harper & Brothers.

Domestic Dramas. By Paul Bourget. Translated by William Marchand. Charles Scribner's Sons.

An Eagle Flight: A Filipino Novel, adapted from 'Noli me Tangere,' by Dr. José Rizal. McClure, Phillips & Co.

A Breaker of Laws. By W. Pett Ridge. The Macmillan Co.

The prominent people of Mrs. Ward's 'Eleanor' are more natural than those of her former novels; they are deeply interested in themselves, and feel a personal emotion more acutely than any world-pain. If the best novels are those that discuss human relations, combining with narration an intimate view of the interests, passions, and thoughts of several individuals, showing how and why they come closely together or go far apart, then 'Eleanor' is, in this respect at least, one of the best. To those who expect from Mrs. Ward an important utterance about public affairs, something authoritative, like the Queen's speech, and assuring, like the President's message, the book must be disappointing and not worth favorable comparison with 'Robert Elsmere' or 'Marcella.' For the problem that engages her is not one that an ecclesiastical congress would debate, or foreign secretaries officially consider, or councils or boards resolve upon; it is a problem that would never come up for wide public discussion, if it were not for the abandoned indiscretion of imaginative writers. When an uncommonly nice woman is very much in love with a man who (if carefully watched) will eventually respond to her passion, and when a young girl not *en rapport* with the situation charges defences, batters down guards, and captures the man, ordinary good-feeling commands us to analyze and criticise the disappointed woman only beneath our breath, confidentially, *in camera*. Nevertheless, poets and novelists have always, so to speak, battened on the torn sensibilities of this unfortunate woman, and Mrs. Ward flaunts them through two long volumes. Incidentally and at length, she notices other things—the political and social state of Italy, for instance, and the tradition of Catholicism; but the theme is the passion of Eleanor Burgoyne for her cousin, Manisty, including her jealousy of the American intruder, Lucy Foster, while the emotional spectacle is the desperation, humiliation, and final abject submission of a proud spirit and a refined and tender heart. Though the spectacle is managed with delicate consideration for Eleanor, it is a little barbarous, and, moreover, there is not intrinsic intensity to supply the book with a very strong motive. Eleanor's plight is exquisitely pitiful, but it is never tragic.

Another element of weakness is the author's constant challenge to criticism by her glorification of Manisty. An author may say that all his people had the radiant beauty of angels, and, though no one may believe him, if he has escaped the illustrator, he has also escaped reasoned disproof. But if he asserts that they have phenomenal mental gifts, he is at once called upon to make the assertion good. While admitting Manisty's inadequacy to satisfy the dull demands of domestic virtue, and dwelling on his faults of temper and manner, Mrs. Ward places against such defects a potential greatness, an actual grandeur, glitter, fascination; and she believes that she shows all these wonderful qualities in operation, overcoming Eleanor's intellectual criticism, and discomfiting Lucy's loyal affection for Eleanor and her moral scruples. As a matter of fact, though Manisty is far from commonplace, though he is interesting, with a varied and amusing mind and some charm, he just never fills the stage so completely as Mrs. Ward says he does. It is not the first time that Mrs. Ward has conceived a character superlatively splendid in one way or another; and her failure to realize this splendor, to impress it on the reader, seems to supply a measure both for her ambition and her power. To Robert Elsmere she attributed a scholarship and controversial acuteness not discernible within quotation marks, while the supposed potency of Marcella in the great world was most conspicuously shown in the successful seduction from political loyalty of a young man who was not persuaded by her dazzling intellect, but distracted by her beauty. It is not, however, unlikely that, in real life, a Mrs. Burgoyne's imagination would, from the given material, create a glorified Manisty, and thus all that follows for her would be natural and probable.

In her characterization of Eleanor Mrs. Ward gets well outside of herself, conquers her own strongest tendencies, and displays a large share of sympathetic intuition and constructive imagination. To delineate a Lucy Foster, she need not exert imagination. She knows these perfect women nobly planned for all the serious purposes of existence, and contrives not to excite either envy or incredulity of their perfection. The famous New England conscience has its most agreeable illustration in such maidens as Lucy, and if they are really (as Mrs. Ward says) becoming rare, New England should begin to protect her bachelors against foreign competition. No doubt Lucy could easily have got a far better bargain than Manisty at home, and it is a little cold-blooded in Mrs. Ward to hand her over for life to "one of the temperaments to which other lives minister without much return."

The minor figures contribute to the development of the emotional drama, and appropriately relieve tension without diverting interest unduly to themselves. Incidents serve to test character as well as advance the action, and the descriptions of Italy, the talk about the religion, politics, and social condition of Italy, fill in and round out the novel to artistic and satisfactory completeness. Technically, the book is a triumph of study in novel-making, of skill perfected by care and patience. The opening chapters place the scene and the chief characters clearly and indicate the situation. Excepting, perhaps, the visit to Manisty's villa of his mad sister, there is no incident without a result that justifies its introduction. Miss Manisty is a figure for sombre tragedy, and her accidental transient appearance emphasizes by contrast the feebler passion of the principal theme. In every chapter one recognizes intelligence, observation, sympathy, and a clear conception of right to be defended, of wrong to be overcome—all cultivated and trained to a point where expression must be just and full—just and full, but not compelling, captivating, magnetic. It is easy and pleasant to say what Mrs. Ward is, yet difficult to say what she is not; and perhaps neither grateful nor necessary to try. She has made so much of her talents that to reflect on what she has not been given seems gratuitous injury. But to compare 'Eleanor' with Mr. Barrie's 'Sentimental Tommy,' for instance, is to know (though absolutely ignorant of technicalities) what Nature has withheld from Mrs. Ward. Proverbs, and axioms, and all the list of tiresome things taken for granted, make proper matter for scorn of liberal minds, but occasionally they confront us, inexplicable, yet indisputable. As between Mrs. Ward and Mr. Barrie there is nothing to say except that the poet is born, not made.

In his study of a typical figure in modern society, a lady known to Paris as "the beautiful Mme. Le Prieux," M. Bourget says:

> "She was not a monster, although her prolonged exploitation of her husband's labor in the interest of a vain passion for luxury was very nearly ferocious; and very much like ferocity also was her present procedure in forcing her daughter to a cruelly utilitarian marriage. It was simply that her conscience had been vitiated by the germs of corruption with which the social atmosphere is filled—a corruption which current morality, solely concerning itself with breaches of the seventh commandment, scarcely at all notices."

Such comment as this, taken with the subjects discussed in his latest translated volume, prompt the hopeful inference that M. Bourget, who in the past has considered "breaches of the seventh commandment" from several points of view, means in future to ignore them as completely as a

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Frenchman can, and to permit his talent for the criticism of society a wider field of observation. The form of corruption directly attacked in the "domestic drama" entitled "Other People's Luxury" is, speaking for all the world, and for power to wreck human happiness, a more common and more serious crime than adultery. In every class of society, domestic disaster is brought about more frequently by a woman's coveting of her fellow-woman's material goods, of anything and everything purchasable that is her neighbors, than by an irresistible passion for her neighbor's husband. If any particular curse may be specified as the curse of democracy, it is the inevitable prevalence of the wish, often assuming the intensity of a mania, to appear as good—that is, as rich and imposing—as one's neighbor, who, of course, is not by birth, by any grace or strength of nature, or for any reason on earth except the accident of superior wealth, any better than one's self. This corrupting desire is not exclusively feminine, but it attacks women more generally than men, rages more fiercely among women, and is more destructive of feminine morality. M. Bourget's Mme. Le Prieux is not an exceptional instance of that "fever of worldly egoism which compels one for ever to compare herself with her richer neighbor, and to go on increasing expenses, complicating life, foolishly (sometimes tragically) sacrificing the reality to the appearance." Under other names she intrudes herself on the contracted social scene of American country towns, and she dominates the big world's stage.

M. Bourget has drawn the lady broadly and also in delicate detail. Ostensibly, he is persistently tendering assurance of his highest consideration, making the best he can of her without violating a felt obligation to practise "the noble virtue of uncompromising veracity." A distinctly French faculty for converting social observations into literature, and for exciting a feeling for morality without appearing didactic or purposeful, has perhaps never been more cleverly expressed. The more violent tragedy of "The Day of Reckoning" is the consequence of a crime committed by devoted and aspiring parents in order to assure the worldly success of their son. In this drama, as in "Other People's Luxury," the family bond is compelling; no member of a family can shirk participation in a common interest, and the conduct and character of one inevitably affect all. The Corbières, plain honest people, yielding to a terrible temptation, appropriated trust funds. This ill-gotten money was so well expended on the education of Eugène, their son, that when, established in the world, and famous in his profession, he discovered his parents' crime, he then took the burden of sorrow and shame upon himself, and gave his life to repair a hideous wrong for which he was not responsible, but by which he alone had benefited. The character of Eugène, tested by a sequence of most trying incidents, and subjected to incentive to ignoble action, preserves a balance between passion and reason, a firmness tempered by gentleness and sympathy, which one false touch would have reduced to the absurd. But M. Bourget has seen his man clearly, so there is no false touch, no sentimentalizing, only a very sincere presentation of a good man. The remaining dramas are psychological studies of children, and are narrower in view, more characteristically French. We others may believe that such children may exist, but we don't like them or wish to hear about them; and to analyze precocious or morbid little wretches seems to us a waste of talent, if not a wickedness.

From the biographical sketch introducing 'An Eagle Flight,' it appears that the author, Dr. José Rizal, was of almost pure Tagalo race. Deeply impressed in his youth by the wretchedness of the Filipinos, most of them in a condition a little worse than literal slavery, believing in their capacity to rise to better things and to enjoy them, his short life was dedicated in one way or another to their cause. Though he was shot for treason, the charge appears to have been trumped up by his enemies, for he did not think his people ready for independence, but, on the contrary, believed that their political safety lay in continued union with Spain. The tyranny he hated and fought against was not that of a king or of the Spanish Government, but the tyranny of a multitude of friars, brown, white, and gray, who for two centuries had had their sandalled feet pressed on the neck of a helpless race. The friars owned the land, owned the ear of Spanish officials, owned the soul of the ignorant and superstitious native. Against this irresponsible omnipotence every Filipino revolt has been directly aimed, and in order to show it up, to make it plain and detestable to Europe, Rizal wrote fervently poems, pamphlets, and novels. 'The Eagle Flight' in an adaptation of his first novel, entitled 'Noli me tangere,' and it is probable that many incidents of his own life, much of his own aspiration, are described and expressed in the principal figure of the tale, Crisóstomo Ibarra. The book is extraordinarily interesting, showing the poet's feeling and far vision in unusual combination with power of unprejudiced observation and force to do—to do always the most and best for a purpose on which the heart is set. Rizal did not concern himself deeply with the technicalities of novel-writing (though the original is probably more coherent than the adaptation), so the book is a series of episodes, scenes, situations loosely connected, yet all helping to express his absorbing passion and to impart it with intensity.

The strain, however, is not of unenlivened melancholy, for the sketches of social life in towns are, to the foreigner at all events, exceedingly funny. It is very amusing to know that society people in Manila have ambitions and arts so much like those of society people at home. Rizal's attitude towards the more prosperous of his countrymen is of contempt more bitter, perhaps, than they deserve, seeing that they are human as well as Filipino, and that they, even as the poorer classes, come under the scourge of the friars. But while his feeling for the masses is intensely sympathetic, he never looks at them with the eye of uncritical partisanship. My people, he says, are ignorant, idle, not sternly virtuous; on the other hand, not predisposed to coarse, destructive vice. What strength of nature they have is crushed by an infamous oppression, and my conviction is that, once having obtained freedom, they will learn to use freedom well. This argument is not yet closed, so there is still time for Rizal's plea to be taken into consideration.

The author of 'A Breaker of Laws' revives the romance of that sort of crime which Dickens exploited in 'Oliver Twist.' Mr. Ridge's burglars are not quite so depraved and dirty as Bill Sykes and the Artful Dodger, but, on the other hand, they are never thrilling, and their best efforts to be comic fall flat. Alfred Bateson's struggle to assume respectability with matrimony is not picturesque, nor are his relapses very touching. The self-sacrifices of his friend, the excellent but uninteresting Mr. Finnis, must have been their own reward; otherwise, they point no moral. The tale is not entertaining, and can hardly have been written with the immoral intention of exciting sympathy with burglars, as the author does not appear to be an enemy of society.

The Story of Nineteenth Century Science. By Henry Smith Williams, M.D. With illustrations. Harper & Bros. 1900. 8vo, pp. 475.

A brief and extremely popular account of the general progress during the nineteenth century of the physical and natural sciences was wanted at this time, and Dr. Williams has drawn it up quite as successfully as could be expected. He does not cover the whole field of those sciences, but deals with all the most significant parts, and adds, besides, a chapter upon modern psychology. To call what is here dealt with "Nineteenth Century Science," ignoring mathematics, linguistics, archæology, economics, is to do injustice to the nineteenth century, but it is an injustice that we are accustomed to. The word "Story" in the title may serve as a hint to the prospective purchaser of the volume that he may expect a style which strains a little, and rather uncomfortably, after effect and sensation. Still, while there is some truth in that, especially in the earlier part of the book, it would be a great mistake to suppose that this is one of those publications which assume that science consists in producing startling novelties and thrilling marvels. On the contrary, it is a serious work, written by a man who, if he does not everywhere show himself a master of the particular branch of science of which he is treating, which would be almost inconceivable, yet does show that he knows what science really is better than a good many men who go by the name of scientists. He seizes upon the great and fruitful ideas which have been developed in each of the branches of which he treats, and shows how it has been evolved, in a way to make his work worthy of being called, not a mere "Story," but a History of the Nineteenth Century in respect to ten, at least, of the eleven sciences which he considers. To do this in such a way as to be readable without fatigue by everybody who ever reads anything but a newspaper or a novel, is a veritable feat. That it is easy enough to be entertaining about science we know, but it is not easy to write lightly and yet picture science as it appears to scientific men.

We must not be understood as meaning that the book wraps up any profound insight into the nature and methods of science, as Whewell's immortal history did. It can teach nothing to scientific men, because it looks upon science precisely as they do; but it will be highly instructive for the great public for which it is intended. Bad proofreading, with which we are becoming sadly familiar of late, must be responsible for Lagrange being named as the author of the 'Mécanique Céleste,' for Agassiz's work on glaciers being dated twenty

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years too late, and a number of such misleading statements, in spite of which a great deal of pains has evidently been taken to insure accuracy in details. The book is not a mere compilation. The writer has looked into the memoirs, and has otherwise sought information at first hand. The volume also contains upwards of a hundred illustrations, almost all of which are positively interesting. Three-quarters of them are portraits. The writer of this notice was acquainted with the originals of nearly half of them, and can testify that those are characteristically portrayed, while most of the others carry conviction.

Nobody can dream that it is humanly possible to write a work like this which is not open to much criticism. The writer must have a weak side, and Dr. Williams shows his, the more exact is the branch of science with which he deals. This is unfortunate, for that is just where mastery would be most desirable. For example, Dr. Williams plainly shows his aversion to the idea of action at a distance, to which he has no doubt been encouraged by Kelvin and his followers. Now there are just three reasons which render the opinion of those physicists a tenable one. The first is purely logical: it is that as long as we are forced to admit an all-pervading ether, we have no need of any action at a distance, nor, indeed, of any other matter at all, and all our notions of rigid mechanics can be replaced, or be regarded as replaceable, by an amplified hydrodynamics. The second reason appeals to the lessons of the history of science. Because Faraday had no mathematical training, and was consequently unable to think clearly about action at a distance, he was led to develop another way of thinking about the forces of electricity which not only is extremely attractive to a mathematical mind, but also gave rise to Maxwell's theory of electricity, and thence to all the conceptions of Hertz (with the Marconi telegraph to testify to their value), and to the vortical theory of matter, with the applications that J. J. Thompson is making of it. The third reason is more positive, although even this is not conclusive: it is that the properties of elastic solids cannot be accounted for by attractions and repulsions between pairs of particles. But Dr. Williams does not touch upon any of these things as causes of the opinion he seems to espouse. He does not tell us that action at a distance was universally accepted by all whose opinions were of any account through the first half of the century, nor how the contrary belief has gradually become respectable. He leaves the reader to imagine, as the popular reader will be sure to do, that the objection to action at a distance is no more than might have weight with a philosopher of Newton's century—its inconceivability. Now there can be no manner of doubt, in the mind of a psychologist, that this "inconceivability" of action at a distance is due to the circumstance that the great mass of every-day experience in regard to the communication of forces is of one solid body pushing another. Yet, whatever theory we may entertain about action at a distance, it is an indisputable fact that in such ordinary experience there is really no contact at all between the atoms of the different solids. For if two pieces of iron or glass are brought into actual contact, they will stick together so that they can only be torn apart. In short, the "inconceivability" of action at a distance is of the same kind as the inconceivability of any occult phenomenon, such as the mixture of two liquids making a solid, two colorless liquids making a black mixture, red and green lights making yellow, etc. An inconceivability which does not prevent an hypothesis from being perfectly exact and consistent is no good reason for rejecting it. Although Dr. Williams is so averse to the admission of action at a distance, he seems almost equally so to the only possible escape from it, that of the ether. He even suggests that empty space may fulfil its functions. He does not point out that if light, during the eight minutes after it leaves the sun before it impinges on the earth, is in empty space, the doctrine of the conservation of energy is false.

Passing from physical conceptions to his statement about the state of opinion among physicists, we also find inaccuracies which, though perhaps of no particular importance in so very popular a history, nevertheless show that exact science is not the author's element. Certainly, there is no more important page of the history of physics than that which relates to the development of ideas concerning heat, energy, and gases from 1824 to 1875. But we do not find that the account here given of this movement of thought is all that might be desired. The author asserts that Sadi-Carnot, in 1824, explicitly stated that a definite quantity of heat could be transformed into a definite quantity of work. But, on the contrary, though it is said that Carnot's posthumous papers show that he subsequently entertained this idea, yet in his celebrated book his doctrine is that heat is a fluid, that its quantity remains unchanged, and that it does work in falling from a higher to a lower temperature just as water does in passing from a higher to a lower level. Nothing is said in this "Story" about the second law of thermodynamics. The reader will get the idea that, Joule's results being admitted, or we may even say Rumford's, there was no further difficulty with the theory of the steam-engine; and no adequate recognition is given to the work of Clausius. In regard to the kinetical theory of gases, the names of Krönig, Boltzmann, Van der Waals do not appear. Regnault, Amagat, Willard Gibbs are never mentioned.

In chemistry, we find such assertions as that hydrogen being univalent while oxygen is bivalent, "makes it plain that we must expect to find no more than three compounds of those elements." It did not make the matter plain to those who held to the strict univalence of chlorine; and Dr. Williams says nothing about variable valencies, but rather implies their fixity. The history of opinion concerning Mendeléef's law is inexcusably inaccurate after the admirable history of the matter by Venable. The importance of Newland's octaves is much exaggerated, since ideas upon the subject, about as nearly correct as his, were generally rife among advanced chemical thinkers of that day. Such comments might be continued to great length. It must suffice to say briefly that the chapter on psychology, although possessed of some merit, is less good than the others.

The Story of the Chinese Crisis. By Alexis Krausse. Cassell & Co.

In this handy volume of 200 pages we have a spirited narrative in brief of China and her modern experiences, together with the stock picture of the Chinaman as painted by the average Occidental. The writer evidently has knowledge at first hand of much of what he has written, and probably no other book gives a more vivid and accurate account of events in China during this past year. He pictures in lively style the universal habit of "squeezing," which means theft and corruption. It pervades every class, from the viceroy to the boy who carries your letters to the post-office, destroying one or two so as to save from the money given to buy stamps. Like a true Briton, Mr. Krausse believes in opium for the Chinese, declaring (p. 13) that "in the case of the overwhelming majority no ill effects are produced." He is a stalwart for trade and British interests, and believes in thoroughly humbling the Chinese. He would abandon the vacillating policy of the past three years, and "revert to the manly method by which we asserted our dominion in the Far East."

The author shows clearly the part which the various predatory nations have played in the dismemberment of China, as already accomplished. Great Britain has nearly 6,000 subjects in China, shipping in the treaty ports amounting to "upwards of 25,000 tons," (*sic*, p. 147), in reality over eight millions or about sixty per cent., while her commerce in 1899 reached a total of $200,000,000. Yet the amount of Chinese territory owned by Great Britain is under 550 square miles. Russia, on the contrary, has in China, including those in her colonies at Newchang and Port Arthur, but 1,600 subjects and no shipping worth speaking of, but has seized 888,830 square miles of territory which, with Mantchuria, practically hers, will amount to over 1,200,000 square miles. France, whose commercial interests in China are the smallest of any first-class Power's, has robbed China of an area of 315,250 square miles. It is hard for the Chinaman to understand the wealth and resources of Great Britain. Notwithstanding that 60 per cent. of the total foreign trade is British, England's effective influence is as nothing compared with that of Russia. The author traces the failure of diplomacy to the fact that no European has yet learned the workings of the Chinese mind. He believes that with such a people no ordinary measures will serve.

The various wars which China has suffered "have failed either to inculcate respect for the superior power of other nations, or to moderate the intense self-complacency which is inherent in the Celestial character." Yet the impression one gets as he reads this book is that, from the standard of absolute morals, the Occidental man must seem to the Chinaman as abnormal, as proud, as subtle, and as malignant as the Westerner is sure the Chinaman is. Surely, if there is ever to be a union or reconciliation of the Orient and the Occident, it must be not only by moral betterment, but by mutual moral betterment. The Chinaman of Mr. Krausse, and of so many other writers whose God is "trade" or "interests"—British or otherwise—is largely the phantasm of myth or distorted vision. Nor shall we ever be able to see clearly until we get the beam out of our own eye. Actual experience shows that the Chinaman, when treated as a human being, responds to such treatment very much as humanity all over the world does, though it is also true that this response is the more prompt and thorough according as the light

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which is in him is clear. Nevertheless, that light by which he sees us is very apt to be darkened when spoliation and robbery accompany actions which in themselves are prompted by purely selfish motives. It is still nearly impossible for the Chinese to see altruism even in British policy, despite the high tone of Great Britain's morals (including her benevolence in opium) insisted upon by the author.

As a story, the work is sprightly, readable, and for the most part very accurate, though in things American there is room for improvement. In the list of books recommended, that of S. Wells Williams, best of all, is omitted, and we have "Charles" instead of Chester Holcombe. Gordon gets the chief glory of the "Ever Victorious Army," when its real creator was the American, Ward. Mr. Krausse says on page 4, "The total area of China covers 4,218,401 square miles, being nearly four times as extensive as the United States" (p. 4), and "China proper, . . . 1,336,841 square miles, . . . bigger than the United States" (p. 5). It seems hardly correct to speak of a trade in American cotton started with China as early as 1786. Very temperate on the subject of the religious question, the author thinks [redacted] missionary is disliked not merely [redacted]he preaches another creed, but be[redacted]e is in most cases, however inno[redacted] the advance guard of the exploiter [redacted]e concession-hunter, who is the best-[redacted]ed product of Western civilization in the Chinese estimation."

Besides index and appendices, there are two maps, one of the country between Taku and Pekin, and the other of the Chinese capitals.

Landscape Painting in Water Color. By John Macwhirter, R.A. With twenty-three examples in color by the author, and an introduction by Edwin Bale. Cassell & Co.

This book consists chiefly of reproductions of Macwhirter's water-color sketches from nature, comprising careful studies of detail, slight sketches, and full-colored landscape pictures. To these the artist supplies notes describing as far as possible his method of work, the colors he has used in each example, and remarks on his own art and art in general, with quotations from Ruskin and other critics.

It is a variation of the ordinary handbook, with the advantage of having been compiled by a practical landscape painter instead of a professional teacher, who invariably falls into routine and dry-as-dust methods. Those who imagine that they will know how to paint in water-color by studying this pretty booklet, are likely to be discouraged by Macwhirter's notes. He very distinctly admits there is no royal road to art, and that nothing but practice and long study can bring forth satisfactory results. With regard to water-color sketching, he advises the student to make a very thorough drawing of his subject before using color, and then to match the tints rapidly before nature and work the picture up subsequently. He insists on very careful study of detail, and the examples given of wayside flowers very minutely painted were chosen by Ruskin and are now in the Art School at Oxford. As to the colors used, Macwhirter frankly says each artist produces different results with the same colors—all depends on the manner of work; and he insists again and again on the necessity of studying drawing and accurately observing nature before the beautiful and transient effects in landscape painting can be reproduced with any degree of satisfaction.

Mr. Bale's preface is rather perfunctory. After deploring that students are no longer broken in early to the practice of art in the studies of great masters, he thinks a chat with Macwhirter may be a desirable privilege; so that it is rather disappointing that, after seriously studying Macwhirter's views and methods, you find yourself only convinced that you must work and find your own way of expressing yourself in water-color as in any other material. The amateur in art will find hints as to the necessary materials, paper and the stretching of it, brushes, etc.; he can also learn how Macwhirter has worked; but that will not equip him without arduous effort and long study to produce sketches of charm and merit equal to those in the illustrations, although those have suffered considerably in the reproductions, both in transparency of color and in texture.

Gli Scavi di Narce ed il Museo di Villa Giulia, da Fausto Benedetti. London: David Nutt; Turin: Ermanno Loescher. 1900.

This well-written and well-printed octavo of eighty-five pages is of especial importance in its bearing upon the interests of all archæological study within the limits of the kingdom of Italy. Its author and his father, Annibale Benedetti, are well known to all active students of Italian archæology as most intelligent and trustworthy persons, and this account of the excavations carried on by them, chiefly in the neighborhood of the ancient Falerii, and of the treatment of their finds by Comm. Barnabei, recently at the head of the Department of Fine Arts and Antiquities under the Minister of Public Instruction in Italy, is doubtless worthy of the fullest credence.

It will be remembered that when Professor Helbig issued the last edition of his guide to the public museums of Rome, he omitted discussion of the antiquities in the Papa Giulio museum, on the ground that the arrangement and labelling of the material there displayed were too untrustworthy to make scientific treatment of it possible. This open declaration by a scholar of his standing was but the culmination of much discussion and complaint that had been made by both Italian and foreign archæologists ever since the museum of the Papa Giulio had been opened, under the immediate control of Comm. Barnabei, who was charged with being personally as well as officially responsible for a shameful falsification of returns. The interest thus excited led to the appointment of a Government commission to investigate the charges made against the administration of Barnabei in this particular. The report of the Commission was, as everybody expected it would be, a virtual whitewashing of the Administration. The amount of censure contained in it was too infinitesimal to be considered. And now, for the first time, the public is given an opportunity to read, in this relation by Signor Benedetti, a detailed account of a most important part of the case again Comm. Barnabei, as it was presented to the Commission by the men who were witnesses to the facts of their own excavations.

Considered from this distance, and entirely apart from all personal questions between the men concerned, the account appears to prove beyond all manner of doubt that Comm. Barnabei had neither the knowledge nor the care for scientific truth that are the most elementary qualities needed in a man holding such a high position in a department of archæological administration. It was with great relief that all foreign, and most native Italian, archæologists heard a few months ago that Comm. Barnabei, in some manner that was not generally comprehended on this side of the water, had been retired from his official position at the head of the Government Department of Antiquities in favor of Comm. Carlo Fiorilli, a man of entirely different character and training, under whose promising management the best traditions of the past are likely to be restored. The whole world of scholarship has a right to claim an interest in the administration of the kingdom of Italy in the matter of archæological research, and it is much to be hoped that the publication of this narrative by Sig. Benedetti may help to protect Italy and the rest of the world from any attempt to restore to power the man whose official career has done so much to discredit Italian scholarship and Italian manners.

Quite apart from the purpose of its author, the account of the excavations at Narce serves to point another moral. It shows again most clearly the utterly indefensible policy of the Italian Ministry of Education in granting a permit to excavate to any ordinary Italian dealer in antiquities, who is in the business for what he can make out of it financially. Such a man is freely allowed to excavate wherever he can obtain the permission of the owner of the property, by the promise of a share in the plunder obtained, and has usually no difficulty in disposing of his finds in any way that may conduce to the benefit of his own pockets, while no foreign scholars of whatever standing are allowed on any conditions whatever to put a spade into Italian soil. Even the German Archæological Institute, which, under one name or another, has been so remarkable for scholarship in Rome for nearly three-quarters of a century, has never been allowed an opportunity to make excavations, though it has stood ready to conduct the work at its own expense entirely, and to turn over every atom of finds to the Italian Government. But that Government prefers to treat its ancient cities and necropolises as the Papal Government of Rome in former ages treated the ruins of Rome, as mere quarries, from which any mercenary native who has the slightest influence with the administration of antiquities may enrich his own pockets. Meanwhile, the treasures of the past that properly belong to the whole civilized world are being dissipated and lost. The policy of Italy in this respect is in marked contrast to the enlightened methods that prevail in Greece.

I-Go-a-Marketing. By Henrietta Sowle. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Boston, above any other large town of the United States, is noted for the number of its cookery schools. This has inspired many culinary compilations which show little or no advance over those of enterprising women laborers in the same field who do not enjoy equal advantages. Now and again one of these compilers of cook-books endeavors, through unconventional methods of treatment, to beguile the epi-

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cure into the notion that he has met with a treatise that is about to lead him on the trail of original gastronomical discovery. He does not venture far, however, before he stumbles upon all of his old friends, who advance to greet him with effusive familiarity—from that hoary profligate, "Lobster *à la* Newburg," to that old Boston brigand, "Pork and beans," who has robbed digestions on every highway and byway of the land. The latest example is found in 'I-Go-a-Marketing.' It assumes a jocular air. The author greets us in a spirit of comradeship; a hearty, robust companion, who slaps us on the back and flings at us a formula for the making of sausages with the dash of a professional player of baseball. The author endeavors to conceal the lack of originality of her recipes through the use of catching phrases and words. She says, for example, "Look here, now, you know me well enough by this time," "for a flyer," "Say!" and other slang terms calculated to confuse the unsophisticated. This flippant manner of treating classical culinary recipes elaborated by masters of the craft will not do. It destroys the aspect of seriousness which should attach to what is intended to be a book of instruction.

The author tells us that the mission of her compilation—she confesses it to be such —"is a supplementary one. It is for those dark and dreary days when the housekeeper 'wants something good.' It suggests." From this point of view it fulfils its intentions. It differs in arrangement of matter from other cook-books in so far as every month of the year, commencing with January, is attacked in succession, and the comestibles peculiar to each month are treated of without consecutiveness. Soups, fish, entrées, etc., are not disposed of in formal progression, as is usually the case. The book contains many admirable and helpful suggestions, but if amateurs take too seriously one of the author's statements, they may find themselves in the clutches of the law. For the month of August, in speaking of quail, she says: "And now that the 'law's off,' probably, hereabouts, on quail; you will find them in pretty good condition." "Hereabouts" is rather an elastic term. If the author refers to Boston, the amateur will be safe if he hunts quail in cold storage; but if she alludes to quail of the fields, it will not be wise to put her precepts into practice until a couple of months later.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitken, Thomas. Road Making and Maintenance. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Breasted, J. H. A New Chapter in the Life of Thutmose III. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung. 5.40 marks.

Carter, C. F. The Missions of Nueva California. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.

Hartman, L. B. The Republic of America. New ed. The Abbey Press. 25 cents.

Lark Classics: (1) Swinburne. Laus Veneris, and Other Poems; (2) Shakespeare's Sonnets. Doxey. 25 cents.

Little, G. O. The Royal Houses of Israel and Judah. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $3.

Mill, H. R. New Lands: Their Resources and Prospective Advantages. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Newton, R. H., Gottheil, Gustav, and Slicer, T. R. A Book of Common Worship. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Official Catalogue of the Exhibition of the German Empire, at the Paris Exposition. Berlin: By Imperial Commission.

Parker, B. S., and Heiney, E. B. Poets and Poetry of Indiana. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Parsons, W. B. An American Engineer in China. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.

Roberts, Josephine L. The Rose of Joy. The Neely Co.

Robins, Edward. With Washington in Braddock's Campaign. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25.

Sachse, J. F. The German Sectarians of Pennsylvania, 1742-1800. Vol. 2: A Critical and Legendary History of the Ephrata Cloister and the Dunkers. Philadelphia: J. F. Sachse.

Tsao, Lady. Instruction for Chinese Women and Girls. (Translated by Mrs. S. L. Baldwin.) Eaton & Mains. 75 cents.

Vasari, Giorgio. The Lives of the Painters, Sculptors, and Architects, vols. 4 and 5. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents each.

Walford, L. B. One of Ourselves. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.

Walton, Joseph S. Conrad Weiser and the Indian Policy of Colonial Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $2.50.

Wardrop, Marjory and J. O. Life of St. Nino. Part 1., vol. 5 of Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica. Henry Frowde. 90 cents.

Young, J. W. A. The Teaching of Mathe... the Higher Schools of Prussia. Longm... & Co. 80 cents.

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